

# LETTERS

ON THE

STUDY and USE

OF

# HISTORY.

By the late RIGHT HONOURABLE

HENRY ST. JOHN,

LORD VISCOUNT BOLINGBROKE.

VOL. II.

DUBLIN:

Printed for O. NELSON, P. WILSON, J. EXSHAW,  
J. ESDALL, J. PRICE, M. WILLIAMSON, and  
H. SAUNDERS. 1752.

LETTER VIII.

TO THE HONORABLE

MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED

BY THE HONORABLE

MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED

BY THE HONORABLE

MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED

BY THE HONORABLE

MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED



---

---

## LETTER VIII.

*The same subject continued from the  
year one thousand six hundred eighty  
eight.*

**Y**OUR lordship will find, that the objects proposed by the alliance of one thousand six hundred eighty nine between the Emperor and the states, to which England acceded, and which was the foundation of the whole confederacy then formed, were no less than to restore all things to the terms of the Westphalian and Pyrenean treaties, by the War ; and to preserve them in that state after the war, by a defensive alliance and guarranty of the same confederate powers against France. The particular as well as general meaning of this engagement was plain enough : and if it had not been so, the sense of it would have been sufficiently determined, by that separate article, in which England and Holland obliged themselves to assist the ‘ house of ‘ Austria, in taking and keeping possession of the Spanish ‘ monarchy, whenever the case should happen of the death ‘ of CHARLES the second, without lawful heirs.’ This engagement was double, and thereby relative to the whole political system of Europe, alike affected by the power and pretensions of France. Hitherto the power of France had been alone regarded, and her pretensions seemed to have been forgot : or to what purpose should they have been remembered, whilst Europe was so unhappily constituted, that the states at whose expence she increased her power, and their friends and allies, thought that they did enough upon every occasion if they made some tolerable composition with her ? They who were not in circumstances to refuse confirming present, were little likely to take effectual measures against future, usurpations. But now as the alarm was greater than ever, by the outrages that France had committed,

and the intrigues she had carried on ; by the little regard she had shewn to public faith, and by the airs of authority she had assumed twenty years together : so was the spirit against her raised to an higher pitch, and the means of reducing her power, or at least of checking it, were increased. The princes and states who had neglected or favoured the growth of this power, which all of them had done in their turns, saw their error ; saw the necessity of repairing it, and saw that unless they could check the power of France, by uniting a power superior to her's, it would be impossible to hinder her from succeeding in her great designs on the Spanish succession. The Court of England had submitted not many years before to abet her usurpations, and the king of England had stooped to be her pensioner. But the crime was not national. On the contrary, the nation had cried out loudly against it, even whilst it was committing : and as soon as ever the abdication of king JAMES, and the elevation of the prince of ORANGE to the throne of England happened, the nation engaged with all imaginable zeal in the common cause of Europe, to reduce the exorbitant power of France, to prevent her future and to revenge her past attempts ; for even a spirit of revenge prevailed, and the war was a war of anger as well as of interest.

UNHAPPILY this zeal was neither well conducted, nor well seconded. It was zeal without success, in the first of the two wars that followed the year one thousand six hundred eighty eight ; and zeal without knowledge, in both of them. I enter into no detail concerning the events of these two wars. This only I observe on the first of them, that the treaties of Ryswic were far from answering the ends proposed and the engagements taken by the first grand alliance. The power of France, with respect to extent of dominions and strength of barrier, was not reduced to the terms of the Pyrenean treaty, no not to those of the treaty of Nimeghen. Lorrain was restored indeed with very considerable reserves, and the places taken or usurped on the other side of the Rhine : but then Straßbourg was yielded up absolutely to France by the emperor, and by the empire. The concessions to Spain were great, but so were the conquests and the encroachments made upon her by France, since the treaty of Nimeghen : and she got little at Ryswic, I believe nothing more than she had saved at Nimeghen before. All these concessions however, as well as the acknowledgement of king WILLIAM ; and others made by LEWIS the fourteenth  
after

after he had taken Ath and Barcelona, even during the course of the negotiations, compared with the losses and repeated defeats of the allies and the ill state of the confederacy, surprized the generality of mankind, who had not been accustomed to so much moderation and generosity on the part of this prince. But the pretensions of the house of Bourbon, on the Spanish succession, remained the same. Nothing had been done to weaken them; nothing was prepared to oppose them: and the opening of this succession was visibly at hand; for CHARLES the second had been in immediate danger of dying about this time. His death could not be a remote event: and all the good queen's endeavours to be got with child had proved ineffectual. The league dissolved, all the forces of the confederates dispersed, and many disbanded; France continuing armed, her forces by sea and land increased and held in readiness to act on all sides, it was plain that the confederates had failed in the first object of the grand alliance, that of reducing the power of France; by succeeding in which alone they could have been able to keep the second engagement, that of securing the succession of Spain to the house of Austria.

AFTER this peace what remained to be done? In the whole nature of things there remained but three. To abandon all care of the Spanish succession was one; to compound with France upon this succession was another; and to prepare, like her, during the interval of peace to make an advantageous war whenever CHARLES the second should die, was a third. Now the first of these was to leave Spain, and in leaving Spain, to leave all Europe in some sort at the mercy of France: since whatever disposition the Spaniards should make of their crown, they were quite unable to support it against France: since the emperor could do little without his allies; and since Bavaria the third pretender, could do still less, and might find, in such a case, his account perhaps better in treating with the house of Bourbon than with that of Austria. More needs not to be said on this head; but on the other two, which I shall consider together, several facts are proper to be mentioned, and several reflections necessary to be made.

WE might have counter-worked, no doubt, in their own methods of policy, the councils of France, who made peace to dissolve the confederacy, and great concessions, with very suspicious generosity, to gain the Spaniards: we might have waited like them, that is in arms, the death of CHARLES

the second, and have fortified in the mean time the dispositions of the king, the court and people of Spain, against the pretensions of France : we might have made the peace, which was made some time after that, between the emperor and the Turks, and have obliged the former at any rate to have secured the peace of Hungary, and to have prepared, by these and other expedients, for the war that would inevitably break out on the death of the king of Spain.

BUT all such measures were rendered impracticable, by the emperor chiefly. Experience had shewn, that the powers who engaged in alliance with him must expect to take the whole burden of his cause upon themselves ; and that Hungary would maintain a perpetual diversion in favour of France, since he could not resolve to lighten the tyrannical yoke he had established in that country and in Transylvania, nor his ministers to part with the immense confiscations they had appropriated to themselves. Past experience shewed this : and the experience that followed confirmed it very fatally. But further ; there was not only little assistance to be expected from him by those who should engage in his quarrel : he did them hurt of another kind, and deprived them of many advantages by false measures of policy and unskilful negotiations. Whilst the death of CHARLES the second was expected almost daily, the court of Vienna seemed to have forgot the court of Madrid, and all the pretensions on that crown. When the count d'HARRACH was sent thither, the imperial councils did something worse. The king of Spain was ready to declare the archduke CHARLES his successor ; he was desirous to have this young prince sent into Spain : the bent of the people was in favour of Austria, or it had been so, and might have been easily turned the same way again. At court no cabal was yet formed in favour of Bourbon, and a very weak intrigue was on foot in favour of the electoral prince of Bavaria. Not only CHARLES might have been on the spot ready to reap the succession, but a German army might have been there to defend it ; for the court of Madrid insisted on having twelve thousand of these troops, and rather than not have them offered to contribute to the payment of them privately : because it would have been too unpopular among the Spaniards, and too prejudicial to the Austrian interest, to have had it known that the emperor declined the payment of a body of his own Troops that were demanded to secure that monarchy to his son. These proposals were half refused,



refused, and half evaded ; and in return to the offer of the crown of Spain to the archduke, the imperial councils asked the government of Milan for him. They thought it a point of deep policy to secure the Italian provinces, and to leave to England and Holland the care of the Low Countries, of Spain, and the Indies. By declining these proposals the house of Austria renounced in some sort the whole succession : at least she gave England and Holland reasons, whatever engagements these powers had taken, to refuse the harder task of putting her into possession by force ; when she might, and would not procure, to the English and Dutch and her other allies, the easier task of defending her in this possession.

I SAID that the measures mentioned above were rendered impracticable by the emperor ; chiefly, because they were rendered so likewise by other circumstances at the same conjuncture. A principal one I shall mention, and it shall be drawn from the state of our own country, and the disposition of our people. Let us take this up from king WILLIAM's accession to our crown. During the whole progress that LEWIS the fourteenth made towards such exorbitant power, as gave him well grounded hopes of acquiring at last to his family the Spanish monarchy, England had been either an idle spectator of all that passed on the continent, or a faint and uncertain ally against France, or a warm and sure ally on her side, or a partial mediator between her and the powers confederated in their common defence. The revolution produced as great a change in our foreign conduct, as in our domestic establishment : and our nation engaged with great spirit in the war of one thousand six hundred eighty eight. But then this spirit was rash, presumptuous, and ignorant, ill conducted at home, and ill seconded abroad : all which has been touched already. We had waged no long wars on the continent, nor been very deeply concerned in foreign confederacies, since the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The history of EDWARD the third, however, and of the first twelve or fifteen years of HENRY the sixth might have taught us some general but useful lessons, drawn from remote times, but applicable to the present. So might the example of HENRY the eighth, who squandered away great sums for the profit of taking a town, or the honour of having an emperor in his pay ; and who divided afterwards by treaty the kingdom of France between him-

self and CHARLES the fifth, with success so little answerable to such an undertaking, that it is hard to believe his Imperial and English majesty were both in earnest. If they were so, they were both the bubbles of their presumption. But it seems more likely that HENRY the eighth was bubbled on this occasion by the great hopes that CHARLES held out to flatter his vanity: as he had been bubbled by his father-in-law FERDINAND at the beginning of his reign, in the war of Navarre. But these reflections were not made, nor had we enough considered the example of ELIZABETH, the last of our princes who had made any considerable figure abroad, and from whom we might have learned to act with vigour, but to engage with caution, and always to proportion our assistance according to our abilities, and the real necessities of our allies. The frontiers of France were now so fortified, her commerce and her naval force were so increased, her armies were grown so numerous, her troops were so disciplined, so inured to war, and so animated by a long course of successful campaigns, that they who looked on the situation of Europe could not fail to see how difficult the enterprize of reducing her power was become. Difficult as it was, we were obliged, on every account and by reasons of all kinds, to engage in it: but then we should have engaged with more forecast, and have conducted ourselves in the management of it, not with less alacrity and spirit, but with more order, more oeconomy, and a better application of our efforts. But they who governed were glad to engage us at any rate: and we entered on this great scheme of action, as our nation is too apt to do, hurried on by the ruling passion of the day. I have been told by several, who were on the stage of the world at this time, that the generality of our people believed and were encouraged to believe, the war could not be long, if the king was vigorously supported: and there is a humdrum speech of a speaker of the house of commons, I think, who humbly desired his majesty to take this opportunity of reconquering his ancient dutchy of Aquitain. We were soon awaked from these gaudy dreams. In seven or eight years no impression had been made on France, that was besieged as it were on every side: and after repeated defeats in the Low-Countries where king WILLIAM laid the principal stress of the war, his sole triumph was the retaking of Namur, that had been taken by the French a few years before. Unsustained by success abroad, we are not to wonder that the spirit flagged



at home ; nor that the discontents of those who were averse to the established government, uniting with the far greater number of those who disliked the administration, inflamed the general discontents of the nation, oppressed with taxes, pillaged by usurers, plundered at sea, and disappointed at land. As we run into extreams always, some would have continued this war at any rate, even at the same rate : but it was not possible they should prevail in such a situation of affairs, and such a disposition of minds. They who got by the war, and made immense fortunes by the necessities of the public, were not so numerous nor so powerful, as they have been since. The monied interest was not yet a rival able to cope with the landed interest, either in the nation, or in parliament. The great corporations that had been erected more to serve the turn of party, than for any real national use, aimed indeed even then at the strength and influence which they have since acquired in the legislature ; but they had not made the same progress by promoting national corruption, as they and the court have made since. In short the other extream prevailed. The generality of people grew as fond of getting out of the war, as they had been of entering into it : and thus far perhaps, considering how it had been conducted, they were not much to be blamed. But this was not all ; for when King WILLIAM had made the peace, our martial spirit became at once so specific, that we seemed resolved to meddle no more in the affairs of the continent, at least to employ our arms no more in the quarrels that might arise there ; and accordingly we reduced our troops in England to seven thousand men.

I HAVE sometimes considered, in reflecting on these passages, what I should have done, if I had sat in parliament at that time ; and have been forced to own myself, that I should have voted for disbanding the army then ; as I voted in the following parliament for censuring the partition treaties. I am forced to own this, because I remember how imperfect my notions were of the situation of Europe in that extraordinary crisis, and how much I saw the true interest of my own country in an half light. But, my lord, I own it with some shame ; because in truth nothing could be more absurd than the conduct we held. What ! because we had not reduced the power of France by the war, nor excluded the house of Bourbon from the Spanish succession, nor compounded with her upon it by the peace ; and because the house of Austria had not helped herself, nor put it into our  
power

power to help her with more advantage and better prospect of success—were we to leave that whole succession open to the invasions of France, and to suffer even the contingency to subsist, of seeing those monarchies united? What! because it was become extravagant, after the trials so lately made, to think ourselves any longer engaged by treaty or obliged by good policy to put the house of Austria in possession of the whole Spanish monarchy, and to defend her in this possession by force of arms, were we to leave the whole at the mercy of France? If we were not to do so, if we were not to do one of the three things that I said above remained to be done, and if the emperor put it out of our power to do another of them with advantage; were we to put it still more out of our power, and to wait unarmed for the death of the king of Spain? In fine, if we had not the prospect of disputing with France, so successfully as we might have had it, the Spanish succession whenever it should be open; were we not only to shew by disarming, that we would not dispute it at all, but to censure likewise the second of the three things mentioned above and which King WILLIAM put in practice, the compounding with France, to prevent if possible a war, in which we were averse to engage?

ALLOW me to push these reflexions a little further, and to observe to your lordship, that if the proposal of sending the archduke into Spain had been accepted in time by the imperial court, and taken effect and become a measure of the confederacy, that war indeed would have been protracted; but France could not have hindered the passage of this prince and his German forces, and our fleet would have been better employed in escorting them, and in covering the coasts of Spain and of the dominions of that crown both in Europe and in America, than it was in so many unmeaning expeditions from the battle of La Hogue to the end of the war. France indeed would have made her utmost efforts to have had satisfaction on her pretensions, as ill founded as they were. She would have ended that war, as we begun the next, when we demanded a reasonable satisfaction for the emperor: and tho I think that the allies would have had, in very many respects, more advantage in defending Spain, than in attacking France; yet, upon a supposition that the defence would have been as ill conducted as the attack was, and that by consequence, whether CHARLES the second had  
lived

lived to the conclusion of this war, or had died before it, the war must have ended in some partition or other; this partition would have been made by the Spaniards themselves. They had been forced to compound with France on her former pretensions, and they must and they would have compounded on these, with an Austrian prince on the throne, just as they compounded, and, probably much better than they compounded, on the pretensions we supported against them, when they had a prince of Bourbon on their throne. France could not have distressed the Spaniards, nor have overrun their monarchy, if they had been united; and they would have been united in this case, and supported by the whole confederacy, as we distressed both France and them, over-run their monarchy in one hemisphere, and might have done so in both, when they were disunited, and supported by France alone. France would not have acted, in such negotiations, the ridiculous part which the emperor acted in those that led to the peace of Utrecht, nor have made her bargain worse by neglecting to make it in time. But the war ending as it did, tho I cannot see how king WILLIAM could avoid leaving the crown of Spain and that entire monarchy at the discretion of LEWIS the fourteenth, otherwise than by compounding to prevent a new war, he was in no sort prepared to make; yet it is undeniable, that, by consenting to a partition of their monarchy, he threw the Spaniards into the arms of France. The first partition might have taken place, perhaps, if the electoral prince of Bavaria had lived, whom the French and Spaniards too would have seen much more willingly than the archduke on the throne of Spain. For among all the parties into which that court was divided in one thousand six hundred and ninety eight when this treaty was made, that of Austria was grown the weakest, by the disgust taken at a German queen, and at the rapacity and insolence of her favourites. The French were looked upon with esteem and kindness at Madrid; but the Germans were become, or growing to be, objects of contempt to the ministers, and of aversion to the people. The electoral prince died in one thousand six hundred and ninety nine. The star of Austria, so fatal to all those who were obstacles to the ambition of that house, prevailed; as the elector expressed himself in the first pangs of his grief. The state of things changed very much by this death. The archduke was to have Spain and the Indies, according to a second partition: and the Spaniards, who had expressed great resentment at the

the

the first, were pushed beyond their bearing by this. They soon appeared to be so; for the second treaty of partition was signed in March one thousand seven hundred; and the will was made, to the best of my remembrance, in the October following. I shall not enter here into many particulars concerning these great events. They will be related faithfully, and I hope fully explained, in a work which your lordship may take the trouble very probably of perusing some time or other, and which I shall rather leave, than give to the public. Something however must be said more, to continue and wind up this summary of the latter period of modern history.

FRANCE then saw her advantage, and improved it no doubt, tho not in the manner, nor with the circumstances, that some lying scriblers of memorials and anecdotes have advanced. She had sent one of the ablest men of her court to that of Madrid, the marshal of HARCOURT; and she had stipulated in the second treaty of partition, that the archduke should go neither into Spain nor the dutchy of Milan, during the life of CHARLES the second. She was willing to have her option between a treaty and a will. By the acceptance of the will, all king WILLIAM's measures were broke. He was unprepared for war as much as when he made these treaties to prevent one; and if he meant in making them, what some wise, but refining men have suspected, and what I confess I see no reason to believe, only to gain time by the difficulty of executing them, and to prepare for making war, whenever the death of the king of Spain should alarm mankind, and rouse his own subjects out of their inactivity and neglect of foreign interests: if so, he was disappointed in that too; for France took possession of the whole monarchy at once, and with universal concurrence, at least without opposition or difficulty, in the favour of the duke of ANJOU. By what has been observed, or hinted rather very shortly, and I fear a little confusedly, it is plain that reducing the power of France, and securing the whole Spanish succession to the house of Austria, were two points that King WILLIAM, at the head of the British and Dutch common-wealths and of the greatest confederacy Europe had seen, was obliged to give up. All the acquisitions that France cared to keep for the maintenance of her power were confirmed to her by the treaty of Ryswic; and King WILLIAM allowed, indirectly at least, the pretensions of the house of Bourbon to the Spanish succession, as LEWIS the four-



fourteenth allowed, in the same manner, those of the house of Austria, by the treaties of partition. Strange Situation! in which no expedient remained to prepare for an event, visibly so near, and of such vast importance as the death of the king of Spain, but a partition of his monarchy, without his consent, or his knowledge! If king WILLIAM had not made this partition, the emperor would have made one, and with as little regard to trade, to the barrier of the seven provinces, or to the general system of Europe, as had been shewed by him when he made the private treaty with France already mentioned, in one thousand six hundred sixty-eight. The ministers of Vienna were not wanting to insinuate to those of France overtures of a separate treaty, as more conducive to their common interests than the accession of his imperial majesty to that of partition. But the councils of Versailles judged very reasonably, that a partition made with England and Holland would be more effectual than any other, if a partition was to take place: and that such a partition would be just as effectual as one made with the emperor, to furnish arguments to the emissaries of France, and motives to the Spanish councils, if a will in favour of France could be obtained. I repeat it again; I cannot see what king WILLIAM could do in such circumstances as he found himself in after thirty years struggle, except what he did: neither can I see how he could do what he did, especially after the resentment expressed by the Spaniards, and the furious memorial presented by CANALES on the conclusion of the first treaty of partition, without apprehending that the consequence would be a will in favour of France. He was in the worst of all political circumstances, in that wherein no one good measure remains to be taken, and out of which he left the two nations, at the head of whom he had been so long, to fight and negotiate themselves and their confederates, as well as they could.

WHEN this will was made and accepted, LEWIS the fourteenth had succeeded, and the powers in opposition to him had failed, in all the great objects of interest and ambition, which they had kept in fight for more than forty years; that is from the beginning of the present period. The actors changed their parts in the tragedy that followed. The power, that had so long and so cruelly attacked, was now to defend, the Spanish monarchy: and the powers, that had so long defended it, were now to attack it. Let us see how this was brought about; and that we may see it the better,

and

and make a better judgment of all that passed from the death of CHARLES the second to the peace of Utrecht, let us go back to the time of his death, and consider the circumstances that formed this complicated state of affairs, in three views; a view of right, a view of policy, and a view of power.

THE right of succeeding to the crown of Spain would have been undoubtedly in the children of MARIA THERESA, that is in the house of Bourbon; if this right had not been barred by the solemn renunciations so often mentioned. The pretensions of the house of Austria were founded on these renunciations, on the ratification of them by the Pyrenean treaty, and the confirmation of them by the will of PHILIP the fourth. The pretensions of the house of Bourbon were founded on a supposition, it was indeed no more, and a vain one too, that these renunciations were in their nature null. On this foot the dispute of right stood during the life of CHARLES the second, and on the same it would have continued to stand even after his death, if the renunciations had remained unshaken; if his will, like that of his father, had confirmed them, and had left the crown, in pursuance of them, to the house of Austria. But the will of CHARLES the second, annulling these renunciations, took away the sole foundation of the Austrian pretensions; for, however this act might be obtained, it was just as valid as his father's, and was confirmed by the universal concurrence of the Spanish nation to the new settlement he made of that crown. Let it be, as I think it ought to be, granted, that the true heirs could not claim against renunciations that were, if I may say so, conditions of their birth: but CHARLES the second had certainly as good a right to change the course of succession agreeably to the order of nature and the condition of that monarchy, after his true heirs were born, as PHILIP the fourth had to change it, contrary to this order and this constitution, before they were born, or at any other time. He had as good a right in short to dispense with the Pyrenean treaty, and to set it aside in this respect, as his father had to make it: so that the renunciations being annulled by that party to the Pyrenean treaty who had exacted them, they could be deemed no longer binding, by virtue of this treaty, on the party who had made them. The sole question that remained therefore between these rival houses, as to right, was this, whether the engagements taken by LEWIS the fourteenth in the partition treaties obliged him to adhere to the terms of the last of them in all events, and to deprive his



his family of the succession which the king of Spain opened, and the Spanish nation offered to them; rather than to depart from a composition he had made, on pretensions that were disputable then, but were now out of dispute? It may be said, and it was said, that the treaties of partition being absolute, without any condition or exception relative to any disposition the king of Spain had made or might make of his succession, in favour of Bourbon or Austria; the disposition made by his will, in favour of the duke of ANJOU, could not affect the engagements so lately taken by LEWIS the fourteenth in these treaties, nor dispense with a literal observation of them. This might be true on strict principles of justice; but I apprehend that none of these powers, who exclaimed so loudly against the perfidy of France in this case, would have been more scrupulous in a parallel case. The maxim *summum jus est summa injuria* would have been quoted, and the rigid letter of treaties would have been softened by an equitable interpretation of their spirit and intention. His imperial majesty, above all, had not the least color of right to exclaim against France on this occasion; for in general, if his Family was to be stripped of all the dominions they have acquired by breach of faith, and means much worse than the acceptance of the will, even allowing all the invidious circumstances imputed to the conduct of France to be true, the Austrian family would sink from their present grandeur to that low state they were in two or three centuries ago. In particular, the emperor who had constantly refused to accede to the treaties of partition, or to submit to the dispositions made by them, had not the least plausible pretence to object to LEWIS the fourteenth, that he departed from them. Thus I think the right of the two houses stood on the death of CHARLES the second. The right of the Spaniards, an independent nation, to regulate their own succession, or to receive the prince whom their dying monarch had called to it; and the right of England and Holland to regulate this succession, to divide, and parcel out this monarchy in different lots, it would be equally foolish to go about to establish. One is too evident, the other too absurd, to admit of any proof. But enough has been said concerning right, which was in truth little regarded by any of the parties concerned immediately or remotely in the whole course of these proceedings. Particular interests were alone regarded, and these were pursued as ambition, fear, resentment, and Vanity directed: I mean the ambition of the  
the

the two houses contending for superiority of power; the fear of England and Holland lest this superiority should become too great in either; the resentment of Spain at the dismemberment of that monarchy projected by the partition treaties; and the vanity of that nation, as well as of the princes of the house of Bourbon: for as vanity mingled with resentment to make the will, vanity had a great share in determining the acceptance of it.

LET us now consider the same conjuncture in a view of policy. The policy of the Spanish councils was this. They could not brook that their monarchy should be divided: and this principle is expressed strongly in the will of CHARLES the second, where he exhorts his subjects not to suffer any dismemberment or diminution of a monarchy founded by his predecessors with so much glory. Too weak to hinder this dismemberment by their own strength, too well apprised of the little force and little views of the court of Vienna, and their old allies having engaged to procure this dismemberment even by force of arms; nothing remained for them to do, upon this principle, but to detach France from the engagements of the partition treaties, by giving their whole monarchy to a prince of the house of Bourbon. As much as may have been said concerning the negotiations of France to obtain a will in her favour, and yet to keep in reserve the advantages stipulated for her by the partition-treaties, if such a will could not be obtained, and tho' I am persuaded that the marshal of HARCOURT, who helped to procure this will, made his court to LEWIS the fourteenth as much as the marshal of TALLARD, who negotiated the partitions; yet it is certain, that the acceptance of the will was not a measure definitely taken at Versailles when the king of Spain died. The alternative divided those councils, and without entering at this time into the arguments urged on each side, adhering to the partitions seemed the cause of France, accepting the will that of the house of Bourbon.

It has been said by men of great weight in the councils of Spain, and was said at that time by men as little fond of the house of Bourbon, or of the French nation, as their fathers had been; that if England and Holland had not formed a confederacy and begun a war, they would have made PHILIP the fifth as good a Spaniard as any of the preceding PHILIPS, and not have endured the influence of French councils in the administration of their government: but that we threw them entirely into the hands of France when we began

began the war, because the fleets and armies of this crown being necessary to their defence, they could not avoid submitting to this influence as long as the same necessity continued; and, in fact, we have seen that the influence lasted no longer. But notwithstanding this, it must be confessed, that a war was unavoidable. The immediate securing of commerce and of barriers, the preventing an union of the two monarchies in some future time, and the preservation of a certain degree at least of equality in the scales of power, were points too important to England, Holland, and the rest of Europe, to be rested on the moderation of French, and the vigour of Spanish councils, under a prince of the house of France. If satisfaction to the house of Austria, to whose rights England and Holland shewed no great regard whilst they were better founded than they were since the will, had been alone concerned; a drop of blood spilt, or five shillings spent in the quarrel, would have been too much profusion. But this was properly the scale into which it became the common interest to throw all the weight that could be taken out of that of Bourbon. And therefore your lordship will find, that when negotiations with d'AVAUX were set on foot in Holland to prevent a war, or rather on our part to gain time to prepare for it, in which view the Dutch and we had both acknowledged PHILIP king of Spain; the great article on which we insisted was, that reasonable satisfaction should be given the emperor, upon his pretensions founded on the treaty of partition. We could do no otherwise; and France, who offered to make the treaty of Ryswic the foundation of that treaty, could do no otherwise than refuse to consent that the treaty of partition should be so, after accepting the will, and thereby engaging to oppose all partition or dismemberment of the Spanish monarchy. I should mention none of the other demands of England and Holland, if I could neglect to point out to your lordship's observation, that the same artifice was employed at this time, to perplex the more a negotiation that could not succeed on other accounts, as we saw employed in the course of the war, by the English and Dutch ministers, to prevent the success of negotiations that might, and ought to have succeeded. The demand I mean is that of a 'liberty not only to explain the terms proposed, but to 'increase or amplify them, in the course of the negotiation.' I do not remember the words, but this is the sense, and this was the meaning of the confederates in both cases.

IN the former, king WILLIAM was determined to begin the war by all the rules of good policy ; since he could not obtain, nay since France could not grant in that conjuncture, nor without being forced to it by a war, what he was obliged by these very rules to demand. He intended therefore nothing by this negotiation, if it may be called such, but to preserve forms and appearances, and perhaps, which many have suspected, to have time to prepare, as I hinted just now, both abroad and at home. Many things concurred to favour his preparations abroad. The alarm, that had been given by the acceptance of the will, was increased by every step that France made to secure the effect of it. Thus, for instance, the surprising and seizing the Dutch troops, in the same night, and at the same hour, that were dispersed in the garrisons of the Spanish Netherlands, was not excused by the necessity of securing those places to the obedience of PHILIP, nor softened by the immediate dismissal of those troops. The impression it made was much the same as those of the surprizes and seizures of France in former usurpations. No one knew then, that the sovereignty of the ten provinces was to be yielded up to the elector of Bavaria : and every one saw that there remained no longer any barrier between France and the seven provinces. At home, the disposition of the nation was absolutely turned to a war with France, on the death of king JAMES the second, by the acknowledgment LEWIS the fourteenth made of his son as king of England. I know what has been said in excuse for this measure, taken, as I believe, on female importunity ; but certainly without any regard to public faith, to the true interest of France in those circumstances, or to the true interest of the prince thus acknowledged, in any. It was said, that the treaty of Ryswic obliging his most christian majesty only not to disturb king WILLIAM in his possession, he might, without any violation of it, have acknowledged this prince as king of England ; according to the political casuistry of the French, and the example of France, who finds no fault with the powers that treat with the kings of England, altho the kings of England retain the title of kings of France ; as well as the example of Spain, who makes no complaints that other states treat with the kings of France, altho the kings of France retain the title of Navarre. But besides that the examples are not apposite, because no other powers acknowledge in form the king of England to be king of France, nor the king of France to be king of Navarre ; with what face could the French excuse  
this



this measure? Could they excuse it by urging that they adhere to the strict letter of one article of the treaty of Ryswic, against the plain meaning of that very article and against the whole tenor of that treaty; in the same breath with which they justified the acceptance of the will, by pretending they adhered to the supposed spirit and general intention of the treaties of partition, in contradiction to the letter, to the specific engagements, and to the whole purport of those treaties? This part of the conduct of LEWIS the fourteenth may appear justly the more surprising; because in most other parts of his conduct at the same time, and in some to his disadvantage, he acted cautiously, endeavoured to calm the minds of his neighbours, to reconcile Europe to his grandson's elevation, and to avoid all shew of beginning hostilities.

THO king WILLIAM was determined to engage in a war with France and Spain, yet the same good policy, that determined him to engage, determined him not to engage too deeply. The engagement taken in the grand alliance of one thousand seven hundred and one is, 'To procure an equitable and reasonable satisfaction to his imperial majesty for his pretension to the Spanish succession; and sufficient security to the king of England, and the states general, for their dominions, and for the navigation and commerce of their subjects, and to prevent the union of the two monarchies of France and Spain.' As king of England, as stateholder of Holland, he neither could, nor did engage any further. It may be disputed perhaps among speculative politicians, whether the balance of power in Europe would have been better preserved by that scheme of partition, which the treaties, and particularly the last of them proposed, or by that which the grand alliance proposed to be the object of the war? I think there is little room for such a dispute, as I shall have occasion to say hereafter more expressly. In this place I shall only say, that the object of this war, which king WILLIAM meditated, and queen ANN waged, was a partition, by which a prince of the house of Bourbon, already acknowledged by us and the Dutch as king of Spain, was to be left on the throne of that dismembered monarchy. The wisdom of those councils saw that the peace of Europe might be restored and secured on this foot, and that the liberties of Europe would be in no danger.

THE scales of the balance of power will never be exactly poised, nor in the precise point of equality either discernible or necessary to be discerned. It is sufficient in this, as in other

human affairs, that the deviation be not too great. Some there will always be. A constant attention to these deviations is therefore necessary. When they are little, their increase may be easily prevented by early care and the precautions that good policy suggests. But when they become great for want of this care and these precautions, or by the force of unforeseen events, more vigour is to be exerted, and greater efforts to be made. But even in such cases, much reflection is necessary on all the circumstances that form the conjuncture; lest, by attacking with ill success, the deviation be confirmed, and the power that is deemed already exorbitant become more so: and lest by attacking with good success, whilst one scale is pillaged, too much weight of power be thrown into the other. In such cases, he who has considered, in the histories of former ages, the strange revolutions that time produces, and the perpetual flux and reflux of public as well as private fortunes, of kingdoms and states as well as of those who govern or are governed in them, will incline to think, that if the scales can be brought back by a war, nearly, tho not exactly, to the point they were at before this great deviation from it, the rest may be left to accidents, and to the use that good policy is able to make of them.

When CHARLES the fifth was at the height of his power, and in the zenith of his glory, when a king of France and a pope were at once his prisoners; it must be allowed, that his situation and that of his neighbours compared, they had as much at least to fear from him and from the house of Austria, as the neighbours of LEWIS the fourteenth had to fear from him and from the house of Bourbon, when after all his other success, one of his grand-children was placed on the Spanish throne. And yet among all the conditions of the several leagues against CHARLES the fifth, I do not remember that it was ever stipulated, that ‘no peace should be made with him as long as he continued to be emperor and king of Spain; nor as long as any Austrian prince continued capable of uniting on his head the Imperial and Spanish crowns.’

If your lordship makes the application, you will find that the difference of some circumstances does not hinder this example from being very apposite, and strong to the present purpose. CHARLES the fifth was emperor and king of Spain; but neither was LEWIS the fourteenth king of Spain, nor PHILIP the fifth king of France. That had happened



in one instance, which it was apprehended might happen in the other. It had happened, and it was reasonably to be apprehended that it might happen again, and that the Imperial and Spanish crowns might continue, not only in the same family, but on the same heads; for measures were taken to secure the succession of both, to PHILIP the son of CHARLES. We do not find however that any confederacy was formed, any engagement taken, nor any war made to remove or prevent this great evil. The princes and states of Europe contented themselves to oppose the designs of CHARLES the fifth, and to check the growth of his power occasionally, and as interest invited, or necessity forced them to do; not constantly. They did perhaps too little against him, and sometimes too much for him: but it they did too little of one kind, time and accident did the rest. Distinct dominions, and different pretensions, created contrary interests in the house of Austria: and on the abdication of CHARLES the fifth, his brother succeeded, not his son, to the empire. The house of Austria divided into a German and a Spanish branch: and if the two branches came to have a mutual influence on one another and frequently a common interest, it was not till one of them had fallen from grandeur, and till the other was rather aiming at it, than in possession of it. In short, PHILIP was excluded from the imperial throne by so natural a progression of causes and effects, arising not only in Germany but in his own family, that if a treaty had been made to exclude him from it in favour of FERDINAND, such a treaty might have been said very probably to have executed itself.

THE precaution I have mentioned, and that was neglected in this case without any detriment to the common cause of Europe, was not neglected in the grand alliance of one thousand seven hundred and one. For in that, one of the ends proposed by the war is, to obtain an effectual security against the contingent union of the crowns of France and Spain. The will of CHARLES the second provides against the same contingency: and this great principle, of preventing too much dominion and power from falling to the lot of either of the families of Bourbon or Austria, seemed to be agreed on all sides; since in the partition-treaty the same precaution was taken against an union of the Imperial and Spanish crowns. King WILLIAM was enough piqued against France. His ancient prejudices were strong and well founded. He had been worsted in war, over-reached in negoti-

ation, and personally affronted by her. England and Holland were sufficiently alarmed and animated, and a party was not wanting, even in our island, ready to approve any engagements he would have taken against France and Spain, and in favour of the house of Austria; tho we were less concerned, by any national interest, than any other power that took part in the war, either then, or afterwards. But this prince was far from taking a part beyond that which the particular interests of England and Holland, and the general interest of Europe, necessarily required. Pique must have no more a place than affection, in deliberations of this kind. To have engaged to dethrone PHILIP, out of resentment to LEWIS the fourteenth, would have been a resolution worthy of CHARLES the twelfth, king of Sweden, who sacrificed his country, his people, and himself at last, to his revenge. To have engaged to conquer the Spanish monarchy for the house of Austria, or to go, in favour of that family, one step beyond those that were necessary to keep this house on a foot of rivalry with the other, would have been as I have hinted, to act the part of a vassal, not of an ally. The former pawns his state, and ruins his subjects, for the interest of his superior lord, perhaps for his lord's humor, or his passion: the latter goes no further than his own interests carry him; nor makes war for those of another, nor even for his own, if they are remote, and contingent, as if he fought *pro aris & focis*, for his religion, his liberty, and his property. Agreeably to these principles of good policy, we entered into the war that began on the death of CHARLES the second: but we soon departed from them, as I shall have occasion to observe in considering the state of things, at this remarkable conjuncture, in a view of strength.

LET me recal here what I have said somewhere else. They who are in the sinking scale of the balance of power do not easily, nor soon, come off from the habitual prejudices of superiority over their neighbours, nor from the confidence that such prejudices inspire. From the year one thousand six hundred and sixty-seven, to the end of that century, France had been constantly in arms, and her arms had been successful. She had sustained a war, without any confederates, against the principal powers of Europe confederated against her, and had finished it with advantage on every side, just before the death of the king of Spain. She continued

tinued armed after the peace, by sea and land. She increased her forces, whilst other nations reduced theirs; and was ready to defend, or to invade her neighbours whilst, their confederacy being dissolved, they were in no condition to invade her, and in a bad one to defend themselves. Spain and France had now one common cause. The electors of Bavaria and Cologne supported it in Germany: the duke of Savoy was an ally, the duke of Mantua a vassal of the two crowns in Italy. In a word, appearances were formidable on that side; and if a distrust of strength, on the side of the confederacy, had induced England and Holland to compound with France for a partition of the Spanish succession; there seemed to be still greater reason for this distrust after the acceptance of the will, the peaceable and ready submission of the entire monarchy of Spain to PHILIP, and all the measures taken to secure him in this possession. Such appearances might well impose. They did so on many, and on none more than on the French themselves, who engaged with great confidence and spirit in the war: when they found it, as they might well expect it would be, unavoidable. The strength of France however, tho' great, was not so great as the French thought it, nor equal to the efforts they undertook to make. Their engagement, to maintain the Spanish monarchy entire under the dominion of PHILIP, exceeded their strength. Our engagement, to procure some out-skirts of it for the house of Austria, was not in the same disproportion to our strength. If I speak positively on this occasion, yet I cannot be accused of presumption: because, how disputable soever these points might be when they were points of political speculation, they are such no longer, and the judgment I make is dictated to me by experience. France threw herself into the sinking scale, when she accepted the will. Her scale continued to sink during the whole course of the war, and might have been kept by the peace as low as the true interest of Europe required. What I remember to have heard the duke of MARLBOROUGH say, before he went to take on him the command of the army in the Low Countries in one thousand seven hundred and two, proved true. The French misreckoned very much, if they made the same comparison between their troops and those of their enemies, as they had made in precedent wars. Those that had been opposed to them, in the last, were raw for the most part when it began, the British particularly: but they had been disciplined, if I may say so, by their defeats.

They were grown to be veteran at the peace of Ryswic, and tho many had been disbanded, yet they had been disbanded lately : so that even these were easily formed a-new, and the spirit that had been raised continued in all. Supplies of men to recruit the armies were more abundant on the side of the confederacy, than on that of the two crowns : a necessary consequence of which it seemed to be, that those of the former would grow better, and those of the latter worse, in a long, extensive, and bloody war. I believe it proved so ; and if my memory does not deceive me, the French were forced very early to send recruits to their armies, as they send slaves to their gallies. A comparison between those who were to direct the councils, and to conduct the armies on both sides, is a task it would become me little to undertake. The event shewed, that if France had her CONDE', her TURENNE, or her LUXEMBURG, to oppose the confederates ; the confederates might have opposed to her, with equal confidence, their EUGENE of Savoy, their MARLBOROUGH, or their STARENBURG. But there is one observation I cannot forbear to make. The alliances were concluded, the quotas were settled, and the season for taking the field approached, when king WILLIAM died. The event could not fail to occasion some consternation on one side, and to give some hopes on the other ; for notwithstanding the ill success with which he made war generally, he was looked upon as the sole centre of union that could keep together the great confederacy then forming : and how much the French feared, from his life, had appeared a few years before, in the extravagant and indecent joy they expressed on a false report of his death. A short time shewed how vain the fears of some, and the hopes of others were. By his death, the duke of MARLBOROUGH was raised to the head of the army, and indeed of the confederacy : where he, a new, a private man, a subject, acquired by merit and by management a more deciding influence, than high birth, confirmed authority, and even the crown of Great Britain, had given to king William. Not only all the parts of that vast machine, the grand alliance, were kept more compact and entire ; but a more rapid and vigorous motion was given to the whole : and, instead of languishing or disastrous campaigns, we saw every scene of the war full of action. All those wherein he appeared, and many of those wherein he was not then an actor, but abettor however of their action, were crowned with the most triumphant success.

I take



I take with pleasure this opportunity of doing justice to that great man, whose faults I knew, whose virtues I admired; and whose memory, as the greatest general and as the greatest minister that our country or perhaps any other has produced, I honor. But besides this, the observation I have made comes into my subject, since it serves to point out to your lordship the proof of what I said above, that France undertook too much when she undertook to maintain the Spanish Monarchy entire in the possession of PHILIP: and that we undertook no more than what was proportionable to our strength, when we undertook to weaken that monarchy by dismembering it, in the hands of a prince of the house of Bourbon, which we had been disabled by ill fortune and worse conduct to keep out of them. It may be said that the great success of the confederates against France proves that their generals were superior to hers, but not that their forces and their national strength were so; that with the same force with which she was beaten, she might have been victorious; that if she had been so, or if the success of the war had varied, or been less decisive against her in Germany, in the Low Countries and in Italy, as it was in Spain, her strength would have appeared sufficient, and that of the confederacy insufficient. Many things may be urged to destroy this reasoning; I content myself with one. France could not long have made even the unsuccessful efforts she did make, if England and Holland had done what it is undeniable they had strength to do; if besides pillaging, I do not say conquering, the Spanish West Indies, they had hindered the French from going to the South Sea; as they did annually during the whole course of the war without the least molestation, and from whence they imported into France in that time as much silver and gold as the whole species of that kingdom amounted to. With this immense and constant supply of wealth, France was reduced in effect to bankruptcy before the end of the war. How much sooner must she have been so, if this supply had been kept from her? The confession of France herself is on my side. She confessed her inability to support what she had undertaken, when she sued for peace as early as the year one thousand seven hundred and six. She made her utmost efforts to answer the expectation of the Spaniards, and to keep their monarchy entire. When experience had made it evident that this was beyond her power, she thought herself justified

to the Spanish nation, in consenting to a partition, and was ready to conclude a peace with the allies on the principles of their grand alliance. But as France seemed to flatter herself, till experience made her desirous to abandon an enterprize that exceeded her strength ; you will find, my lord, that her enemies began to flatter themselves in their turn, and to form designs and take engagements that exceeded theirs. Great Britain was drawn into these engagements little by little ; for I do not remember any parliamentary declaration for continuing the war till PHILIP should be dethroned, before the year one thousand seven hundred and six : and then such a declaration was judged necessary to second the resolution of our ministers and our allies, in departing from the principles of the grand alliance, and in proposing not only the reduction of the French, but the conquest of the Spanish monarchy, as the objects of the war. This new plan had taken place, and we had begun to act upon it, two years before, when the treaty with Portugal was concluded, and the arch-duke CHARLES, now emperor, was sent into Portugal first, and into Catalonia afterwards, and was acknowledged and supported as king of Spain.

WHEN your lordship peruses the anecdotes of the times here spoken of, and considers the course and event of the great war which broke out on the death of the king of Spain, CHARLES the second, and was ended by the treaties of Utrecht and Radstat ; you will find, that in order to form a true judgment on the whole, you must consider very attentively the great change made by the new plan that I have mentioned ; and compare it with the plan of the grand alliance, relatively to the general interest of Europe, and the particular interest of your own country. It will not, because it cannot be denied, that all the ends of the grand alliance might have been obtained by a peace in one thousand seven hundred and six. I need not recall the events of that, and of the precedent years of the war. Not only the arms of France had been defeated on every side ; but the inward state of that kingdom was already more exhausted than it had ever been. She went on indeed, but she staggered and reeled under the burden of the war. Our condition, I speak of Great Britain, was not quite so bad : but the charge of the war increased annually upon us. It was evident that this charge must continue to increase, and it was no less evident that our nation was unable to bear it without falling soon into such distress, and contract-

ing



ing such debts, as we have seen and felt, and still feel. The Dutch neither restrained their trade, nor overloaded it with taxes. They soon altered the proportion of their quotas, and were deficient even after this alteration in them. But, however, it must be allowed, that they exerted their whole strength; and they and we paid the whole charge of the war. Since therefore by such efforts as could not be continued any longer, without oppressing and impoverishing these nations to a degree, that no interest except that of their very being, nor any engagement of assisting an alliance totis viribus can require, France was reduced, and all the ends of the war were become attainable; it will be worth your lordship's while to consider why the true use was not made of the success of the confederates against France and Spain, and why a peace was not concluded in the fifth year of the war. When your lordship considers this, you will compare in your thoughts what the state of Europe would have been, and that of your own country might have been, if the plan of the grand alliance had been pursued; with the possible as well as certain, the contingent as well as necessary, consequences of changing this plan in the manner it was changed. You will be of opinion, I think, and it seems to me, after more than twenty years of recollection, re-examination and reflection, that impartial posterity must be of the same opinion; you will be of opinion, I think, that the war was wise and just before the change, because necessary to maintain that equality among the powers of Europe on which the public peace and common prosperity depends: and that it was unwise and unjust after this change, because unnecessary to this end, and directed to other and to contrary ends. You will be guided by undeniable facts to discover through all the false colours which have been laid, and which deceived many at the time, that the war, after this change, became a war of passion, of ambition, of avarice, and of private interest; the private interest of particular persons and particular states; to which the general interest of Europe was sacrificed so entirely, that if the terms insisted on by the confederates had been granted, nay if even those which France was reduced to grant, in one thousand seven hundred and ten, had been accepted, such a new system of power would have been created as might have exposed the balance of this power to deviations, and the peace of Europe to troubles, not inferior to those that the war was designed, when it begun, to prevent. Whilst  
you

you observe this in general, you will find particular occasion to lament the fate of Great Britain, in the midst of triumphs that have sounded so high. She had triumphed indeed to the year one thousand seven hundred and six inclusively : but what were her triumphs afterwards ? What was her success after she proceeded on the new plan ? I shall say something on that head immediately. Here let me only say, that the glory of taking towns, and winning battles, is to be measured by the utility that results from those victories. Victories, that bring honor to the arms, may bring shame to the councils, of a nation. To win a battle, to take a town, is the glory of a general, and of an army. Of this glory we had a very large share in the course of the war. But the glory of a nation is to proportion the ends she proposes, to her interest and her strength ; the means she employs, to the ends she proposes, and the vigour she exerts, to both. Of this glory, I apprehend we have had very little to boast at any time, and particularly in the great conjuncture of which I am speaking. The reasons of ambition, avarice, and private interest, which engaged the princes and states of the confederacy to depart from the principles of the grand alliance, were no reasons for Great Britain. She neither expected nor desired any thing more than what she might have obtained by adhering to those principles. What hurried our nation then, with so much spirit and ardor, into those of the new plan ? Your lordship will answer this question to yourself, I believe ; by the prejudices and rashness of party ; by the influence that the first successes of the confederate arms gave to our ministers ; and the popularity that they gave, if I may say so, to the war ; by antient, and fresh resentments, which the unjust and violent usurpations, in short the whole conduct of LEWIS the fourteenth for forty years together, his haughty treatment of other princes and states, and even the style of his court, had created : and to mention no more, by a notion, groundless but prevalent, that he was and would be master, as long as his grandson was king of Spain ; and that there could be no effectual measure taken, tho the grand alliance supposed that there might, to prevent a future union of the two monarchies, as long as a prince of the house of Bourbon sat on the Spanish throne. That such a notion should have prevailed, in the first confusion of thoughts which the death and will of CHARLES the second produced among the generality of men, who saw the fleets  
and

and armies of France take possession of all the parts of the Spanish monarchy, is not to be wondered at, by those that consider how ill the generality of mankind are informed, how incapable they are of judging, and yet how ready to pronounce judgment; in fine, how inconsiderately they follow one another in any popular opinion which the heads of party broach, or to which the first appearances of things have given occasion. But, even at this time, the councils of England and Holland did not entertain this notion. They acted on quite another, as might be shewn in many instances, if any other besides that of the grand alliance was necessary. When these councils therefore seemed to entertain this notion afterwards, and acted and took engagements to act upon it, we must conclude that they had other motives. They could not have these; for they knew, that as the Spaniards had been driven by the two treaties of partition to give their monarchy to a prince of the house of Bourbon, so they were driven into the arms of France by the war that we made to force a third upon them. If we acted rightly on the principles of the grand alliance, they acted rightly on those of the will: and if we could not avoid making an offensive war, at the expence of forming and maintaining a vast confederacy, they could not avoid purchasing the protection and assistance of France in a defensive war, and especially in the beginning of it, according to what I have somewhere observed already, by yielding to the authority and admitting the influence of that court in all the affairs of their government. Our ministers knew therefore, that if any inference was to be drawn from the first part of this notion, it was for shortning, not prolonging, the war; for delivering the Spaniards as soon as possible from habits of union and intimacy with France; not for continuing them under the same necessity, till by length of time these habits should be confirmed. As to the latter part of this notion, they knew that it was false, and silly. GARTH, the best natured ingenious wild man I ever knew, might be in the right, when he said, in some of his poems at that time,

— *An Austrian Prince alone*  
*Is fit to nod upon a Span's throne.*

The setting an Austrian prince upon it, was, no doubt, the surest expedient to prevent an union of the two monarchies of France and Spain; just as setting a prince of the house of Bourbon,



Bourbon, on that throne, was the surest expedient to prevent an union of the Imperial and Spanish crowns. But it was equally false to say, in either case, that this was the sole expedient. It would be no paradox, but a proposition easily proved, to advance, that if these unions had been effectually provided against, the general interest of Europe would have been little concerned whether PHILIP or CHARLES had nodded at Madrid. It would be likewise no paradox to say, that the contingency of uniting France and Spain under the same prince appeared more remote, about the middle of the last great war, when the dethronement of PHILIP in favour of CHARLES was made a condition of peace sine qua non, than the contingency of an union of the Imperial and Spanish crowns. Nay, I know not whether it would be a paradox to affirm, that the expedient that was taken, and that was always obvious to be taken, of excluding PHILIP and his race from the succession of France, by creating an interest in all other princes of the blood, and by consequence a party in France itself for their exclusion, whenever the case should happen, was not in it's nature more effectual than any that could have been taken : and some must have been taken, not only to exclude CHARLES from the empire whenever the case should happen that happened soon, the death of his brother JOSEPH without issue male, but his posterity likewise in all future vacancies of the imperial throne. The expedient that was taken against PHILIP at the treaty of Utrecht, they who opposed the peace attempted to ridicule ; but some of them have had occasion since that time to see, tho the case has not happened, how effectual it would have been if it had : and he, who should go about to ridicule it after our experience, would only make himself ridiculous. Notwithstanding all this, he, who transports himself back to that time, must acknowledge, that the confederated powers in general could not but be of GARTH's mind, and think it more agreeable to the common interest of Europe, that a branch of Austria, than a branch of Bourbon, should gather the Spanish succession, and that the maritime powers, as they are called impertinently enough, with respect to the superiority of Great Britain, might think it was for their particular interest to have a prince, dependant for some time at least on them, king of Spain rather than a prince whose dependance, as long as he stood in any, must be naturally on France. I do not say, as some have done, a prince whose family was

an



an old ally, rather than a prince whose family was an old enemy; because I lay no weight on the gratitude of princes, and am as much persuaded that an Austrian king of Spain would have made us returns of that sort in no other proportion than of his want of us, as I am that PHILIP and his race will make no other returns of the same sort to France. If this affair had been entire therefore, on the death of the king of Spain; if we had made no partition, nor he any will, the whole monarchy of Spain would have been the prize to be fought for: and our wishes, and such efforts as we were able to make, in the most unprovided condition imaginable, must have been on the side of Austria. But it was far from being entire. A prince of the house of Austria might have been on the spot, before the king of Spain died, to gather his succession; but instead of this a prince of the house of Bourbon was there soon afterwards, and took possession of the whole monarchy to which he had been called by the late king's will, and by the voice of the Spanish nation. The councils of England and Holland therefore preferred very wisely, by their engagements in the grand alliance, what was more practicable tho less eligible, to what they deemed more eligible, but saw become by the course of events, if not absolutely impracticable, yet an enterprize of more length, more difficulty, and greater expence of blood and treasure, than these nations were able to bear; or than they ought to bear, when their security and that of the rest of Europe might be sufficiently provided for at a cheaper rate. If the confederates could not obtain, by the force of their arms, the ends of the war, laid down in the grand alliance, to what purpose would it be to stipulate for more? And if they were able to obtain these, it was evident that, whilst they dismembered the Spanish monarchy, they must reduce the power of France. This happened; the Low Countries were conquered; the French were driven out of Germany and Italy: and LEWIS the fourteenth, who had so long and so lately set mankind at defiance, was reduced to sue for peace.

If it had been granted him in one thousand seven hundred and six, on what foot must it have been granted? The allies had already in their power all the states that were to compose the reasonable satisfaction for the emperor. I say, in their power: because tho Naples and Sicily were not actually reduced at that time, yet the expulsion of the French

French out of Italy, and the disposition of the people of those kingdoms, considered, it was plain the allies might reduce them when they pleased. The confederate arms were superior till then in Spain, and several provinces acknowledged CHARLES the third. If the rest had been yielded to him by treaty, all that the new plan required had been obtained. If the French would not yet have abandoned PHILIP, as we had found that the Castilians would not even when our army was at Madrid, all that the old plan, the plan of the grand alliance required, had been obtained; but still France and Spain had given nothing to purchase a peace, and they were in circumstances not to expect it without purchasing it. They would have purchased it, my lord: and France, as well as Spain, would have contributed a larger share of the price, rather than continue the War in her exhausted state. Such a treaty of peace would have been a third treaty of partition indeed, but vastly preferable to the two former. The great objection to the two former was drawn from that considerable increase of dominion, which the crown of France, and not a branch of the house of Bourbon, acquired by them. I know what may be said speciously enough to persuade, that such an increase of dominion would not have augmented, but would rather have weakened the power of France, and what examples may be drawn from history to countenance such an opinion. I know likewise, that the compact figure of France, and the contiguity of all her provinces, make a very essential part of the force of her monarchy. Had the designs of CHARLES the eighth, LEWIS the twelfth, FRANCIS the first, and HENRY the second, succeeded, the dominions of France would have been more extensive, and I believe the strength of her monarchy would have been less. I have sometimes thought that even the loss of the battle of St. QUENTIN, which obliged HENRY the second to recal the duke of GUISE with his army out of Italy, was in this respect no unhappy event. But the reasoning which is good, I think, when applied to those times, will not hold when applied to ours, and to the case I consider here; the state of France, the state of her neighbours, and the whole constitution of Europe being so extremely different. The objection therefore to the two treaties of partition had a real weight. The power of France, deemed already exorbitant, would have been increased by this accession of dominion, in the hands

of

of LEWIS the fourteenth : and the use he intended to make of it, by keeping Italy and Spain in awe, appears in the article that gave him the ports on the Tuscan coast, and the province of Guipuscoa. This king WILLIAM might, and I question not did see ; but that prince might think too, that for this very reason LEWIS the fourteenth would adhere, in all events to the treaty of partition : and that these consequences were more remote, and would be less dangerous, than those of making no partition at all. The partition, even the worst that might have been made, by a treaty of peace in one thousand seven hundred and six, would have been the very reverse of this. France would have been weakened, and her enemies strengthened, by her concessions on the side of the Low Countries, of Germany, and Savoy. If a prince of her royal family had remained in possession of Spain and the West-Indies, no advantage would have accrued to her by it, and effectual bars would have been opposed to an union of the two monarchies. The house of Austria would have had a reasonable satisfaction for that shadow of right, which a former partition gave her. She had no other after the will of CHARLES the second : and this may be justly termed a shadow, since England, Holland and France could confer no real right to the Spanish succession, nor to any part of it. She had declined acceding to that partition, before France departed from it, and would have preferred the Italian provinces, without Spain and the West-Indies to Spain and the West-Indies without the Italian provinces. The Italian provinces would have fallen to her share by this partition. The particular demands of England and Holland would have suffered no difficulty, and those that we were obliged by treaty to make for others would have been easy to adjust. Would not this have been enough, my lord, for the public security, for the common interest, and for the glory of our arms ? To have humbled and reduced in five campaigns a power that had disturbed and insulted Europe almost forty years ; to have restored, in so short a time, the balance of power in Europe to a sufficient point of equality, after it had been more than fifty years, that is from the treaty of Westphalia, in a gradual deviation from this point ; in short to have retrieved in one thousand seven hundred and six, a game that was become desperate at the beginning of the century. To have done all this, before the war had exhausted our strength, was the utmost sure that any man could desire who intended the public good



alone: and no honest reason ever was, nor ever will be given, why the war was protracted any longer? why we neither made peace after a short, vigorous and successful war, nor put it entirely out of the power of France to continue at any rate a long one? I have said, and it is true, that this had been entirely out of her power, if we had given greater interruption to the commerce of old and new Spain, and if we had hindered France from importing annually, from the year one thousand seven hundred and two, such immense treasures as she did import by the ships she sent, with the permission of Spain, to the South Sea. It has been advanced, and it is a common opinion, that we were restrained by the jealousy of the Dutch from making use of the liberty given by treaty to them and us, and which, without his imperial majesty's leave, since we entered into the war, we might have taken, of making conquests in the Spanish West-Indies. Be it so, But to go to the South Seas, to trade there if we could, to pillage the West-Indies without making conquests if we could not, and whether we traded or whether we pillaged, to hinder the French from trading there; was a measure that would have given, one ought to think, no jealousy to the Dutch, who might, and it is to be supposed would, have taken their part in these expeditions; or if it had given them jealousy, what could they have replied when a British minister had told them: 'That it little became them to find fault that we traded with or pillaged the Spaniards in the West-Indies to the detriment of our common enemy, whilst we connived at them who traded with this enemy, to his and their great advantage, against our remonstrances, and in violation of the condition upon which we had given the first augmentation of our forces in the Low Countries?' We might have pursued this measure notwithstanding any engagement that we took by the treaty with Portugal, if I remember that treaty right: but instead of this, we wasted our forces, and squandered millions after millions in supporting our alliance with this crown, and in pursuing the chimerical project which was made the object of this alliance. I call it chimerical, because it was equally so, to expect a revolution in favour of CHARLES the third on the slender authority of such a trifier as the admiral of Castile; and when this failed us to hope to conquer Spain by the assistance of the Portuguese, and the revolt of the Catalans. Yet this was the foundation upon which the new plan of the war was built, and so many ruinous engagements were taken.

The



The particular motives of private men, as well as of princes and states, to protract the war, are partly known, and partly guessed at this time. But whenever that time comes, and I am persuaded it will come, when their secret motives their secret designs, and intrigues, can be laid open, I presume to say to your lordship that the most confused scene of iniquity, and folly, that it is possible to imagine, will appear. In the mean while, if your lordship considers only the treaty of barrier, as my lord TOWNSHEND signed it, without, nay in truth, against orders; for the duke of MARLBOROUGH, the joint plenipotentiary, did not: if you consider the famous preliminaries of one thousand seven hundred and nine, which we made a mock shew of ratifying, tho we knew that they would not be accepted; for so the marquis of TORCY had told the pensionary before he left the Hague, as the said marquis has assured me very often since that time: if you enquire into the anecdotes of Gertruydenberg, and if you consult other authentic papers that are extant, your lordship will see the policy of the new plan, I think, in this light. Tho we had refused, before the war began, to enter into engagements for the conquest of Spain, yet as soon as it began, when the reason of things was still the same, for the success of our first campaign cannot be said to have altered it, we entered into these very engagements. By the treaty wherein we took these engagements first, Portugal was brought into the grand alliance; that is, she consented to employ her formidable forces against PHILIP, at the expence of England and Holland: provided we would debar ourselves from making any acquisitions, and the house of Austria promise, that she should acquire many important places in Spain, and an immense extent of country in America. By such bargains as this, the whole confederacy was formed, and held together. Such means were indeed effectual to multiply enemies to France and Spain; but a project so extensive and so difficult as to make many bargains of this kind necessary, and necessary for a great number of years, and for a very uncertain event, was a project into which, for this very reason, England and Holland should not have entered. It is worthy your observation, my lord, that these bad bargains would not have been continued, as they were almost to our immediate ruin, if the war had not been protracted under the pretended necessity of reducing the whole Spanish monarchy to the obedience of the house of Austria. Now, as no other confederate except Portugal was to receive his recompence by any dismemberment of dominions in old or new Spain, the engagements we took

to conquer this whole monarchy had no visible necessary cause, but the procuring the accession of this power, that was already neuter, to the grand alliance. This accession, as I have said before, served only to make us neglect immediate and certain advantages, for remote and uncertain hopes; and chuse to attempt the conquest of the Spanish nation at our own vast expence, whom we might have starved, and by starving, reduced both the French and them, at their expence.

I CALLED the necessity of reducing the whole Spanish monarchy to the obedience of the house of Austria, a pretended necessity: and pretended it was, not real, without doubt. But I am apt to think your lordship may go further, and find some reasons to suspect, that the opinion itself of this necessity was not very real in the minds of those who urged it; in the minds I would say of the able men among them; for that it was real in some of our zealous British politicians, I do them the justice to believe. Your lordship may find reasons to suspect perhaps, that this opinion was set up rather to occasion a diversion of the forces of France, and to furnish pretences for prolonging the war for other ends.

BEFORE the year one thousand seven hundred and ten, the war was kept alive with alternate success in Spain; and it may be said therefore, that the design of conquering this kingdom continued, as well as the hopes of succeeding. But why then did the States General refuse, in one thousand seven hundred and nine, to admit an article in the barrier treaty, by which they would have obliged themselves to procure the whole Spanish monarchy to the house of Austria, when that zealous politician my lord TOWNSHEND pressed them to it? If their opinion of the necessity of carrying on the war, till this point could be obtained, was real; why did they risque the immense advantages given them with so much profuse generosity by this treaty, rather than consent to an engagement that was so conformable to their opinion?

AFTER the year one thousand seven hundred and ten, it will not be said, I presume, that the war could be supported in Spain with any prospect of advantage on our side. We had sufficiently experienced how little dependance could be had on the vigour of the Portugueze; and how firmly the Spanish nation in general, the Castilians in particular, were attached to PHILIP. Our armies had been twice at Madrid, this prince had been twice driven from his capital, his rival had been there, none stirred in favour of the victorious, all wished and acted for the vanquished. In short, the fallhood

of

of all those lures, by which we had been enticed to make war in Spain, had appeared sufficiently in one thousand seven hundred and ten, that Mr. CRAGGS, who was sent towards the end of that year by Mr. STANHOPE into England, on commissions that he executed with much good sense and much address, owned to me, that in Mr. STANHOPE's opinion, and he was not apt to despond of success, especially in the execution of his own projects, nothing could be done more in Spain, the general attachment of the people to PHILIP, and their aversion to CHARLES considered : that armies of twenty or thirty thousand men might walk about that country till doom's-day, so he expressed himself, without effect : that wherever they came, the people would submit to CHARLES the third out of terror, and as soon as they were gone, proclaim PHILIP the fifth again out of affection : that to conquer Spain required a great army ; and to keep it, a greater.

Was it possible, after this, to think in good earnest of conquering Spain, and could they be in good earnest who continued to hold the same language, and to insist on the same measures ? Could they be so in the following year, when the emperor JOSEPH died ? CHARLES was become then the sole surviving male of the house of Austria, and succeeded to the empire as well as to all the hereditary dominions of that family. Could they be in earnest, who maintained even in this conjuncture, that ' no peace could be safe, honorable, or lasting, so long as the kingdom of Spain and the West-Indies remained in the possession of any branch of the house of Bourbon ? Did they mean that CHARLES should be emperor and king of Spain ? In this project they would have had the allies against them. Did they mean to call the duke of Savoy to the crown of Spain, or to bestow it on some other prince ? In this project they would have had his imperial majesty against them. In either case the confederacy would have been broken : and how then would they have continued the war ? Did they mean nothing, or did they mean something more than they owned, something more than to reduce the exorbitant power of France, and to force the whole Spanish monarch out of the house of Bourbon ?

BOTH these ends might have been obtained at Gertruydenberg : why were they not obtained ? Read the preliminaries of one thousand seven hundred and nine, which were made the foundation of this treaty. Inform yourself of what passed there, and observe what followed. Your lordship will remain

astonished.



astonished. I remain so every time I reflect upon them, tho I saw these things at no very great distance, even whilst they were in transaction; and tho I know most certainly that France lost two years before, by the little skill and address of her principal \* minister, in answering overtures made during the siege of Lisle, by a principal person among the allies, such an opportunity, and such a correspondence, as would have removed some of the obstacles that lay now in her way, have prevented others, and have procured her peace. An equivalent for the thirty-seventh article of the preliminaries, that is, for the cession of Spain and the West-Indies, was the point to be discussed at Gertruydenberg. Naples and Sicily, or even Naples and Sardinia would have contented the French, at least they would have accepted them as the equivalent. BUYS and VANDERDUSSEN, who treated with them, reported this to the ministers of the allies: and it was upon this occasion that the duke of MARLBOROUGH, as BUYS himself told me, took immediately the lead, and congratulated the assembly on the near approach of a peace; said, that since the French were in this disposition, it was time to consider what further demands should be made upon them, according to the liberty reserved in the preliminaries; and exhorted all the ministers of the allies to adjust their several ulterior pretensions, and to prepare their demands.

THIS proceeding, and what followed, put me in mind of the Romans with the Carthaginians. The former were resolved to consent to no peace till Carthage was laid in ruins. They set a treaty however on foot, at the request of their old enemy, imposed some terms, and referred them to their generals for the rest. Their generals pursued the same method, and by reserving still a right of making ulterior demands, they reduced the Carthaginians at last to the necessity of abandoning their city, or of continuing the war after they had given up their arms, their machines, and their fleet, in hopes of peace.

FRANCE saw the snare, and resolved to run any risque rather than to be caught in it. We continued to demand, under pretence of securing, the cession of Spain and the West-Indies; that LEWIS the fourteenth should take on him to dethrone his grandson in the space of two months; and if he did not effect it in that time, that we should be at liberty to renew the war, without restoring the places that were to be put into our hands according to the preliminaries; which were the most important places France possessed on the side of the Low Coun-

\* CHAMILLARD.

tries.



tries. LEWIS offered to abandon his grandson; and, if he could not prevail on him to resign, to furnish money to the allies, who might at the expence of France force him to evacuate Spain. The proposition made by the allies had an air of inhumanity; and the rest of mankind might be shocked to see the grandfather obliged to make war on his grandson. But LEWIS the fourteenth had treated mankind with too much inhumanity in his prosperous days, to have any reason to complain even of this proposition. His people indeed, who are apt to have great partiality for their kings, might pity his distresses. This happened, and he found his account in it. PHILIP must have evacuated Spain, I think, notwithstanding his own obstinacy, the spirit of his queen, and the resolute attachment of the Spaniards, if his grandfather had insisted, and been in earnest to force him: but if this expedient was, as it was, odious, why did we prefer to continue the war against France and Spain, rather than accept the other? why did we neglect the opportunity of reducing, effectually and immediately, the exorbitant power of France, and of rendering the conquest of Spain practicable? both which might have been brought about, and consequently the avowed ends of the war might have been answered, by accepting the expedient that France offered. 'France, it was said, was not sincere: she meant nothing more than to amuse, and divide.' This reason was given at the time; but some of those who gave it then, I have seen ashamed to insist on it since. France was not in condition to act the part she had acted in former treaties: and her distress was no bad pledge of her sincerity on this occasion. But there was a better still. The strong places that she must have put into the hands of the allies, would have exposed her, on the least breach of faith, to see, not her frontier alone, but even the provinces that lie behind it, desolated: and prince EUGENE might have had the satisfaction, it is said, I know not how truly, he desired, of marching with the torch in his hand to Versailles.

YOUR lordship will observe, that the conferences at Gertruydenberg ending in the manner they did, the inflexibility of the allies gave new life and spirit to the French and Spanish nations, distressed and exhausted as they were. The troops of the former withdrawn out of Spain, and the Spaniards left to defend themselves as they could, the Spaniards alone obliged us to retreat from Madrid, and defeated us in our retreat. But your lordship may think perhaps, as I do, that if LEWIS the fourteenth had bound himself by a solemn treaty to abandon

don his grandson, had paid a subsidy to dethrone him, and had consented to acknowledge another king of Spain, the Spaniards would not have exerted the same zeal for PHILIP; the actions of Almenara and Saragossa might have been decisive, and those of Brihuega and Villa Viciosa would not have happened. After all these events, how could any reasonable man expect that a war should be supported with advantage in Spain, to which the court of Vienna had contributed nothing from the first, scarce bread to their archduke; which Portugal waged faintly and with deficient quotas, and which the Dutch had in a manner renounced, by neglecting to recruit their forces? How was CHARLES to be placed on the Spanish throne, or PHILIP at least to be driven out of it? By the success of the confederate arms in other parts? But what success, sufficient to this purpose, could we expect? This question may be answered best, by shewing what success we had.

PORTUGAL and Savoy did nothing before the death of the emperor JOSEPH; and declared in form, as soon as he was dead, that they would carry on the war no longer to set the crown of Spain on the head of CHARLES, since this would be to fight against the very principle they had fought for. The Rhine was a scene of inaction. The sole efforts, that were to bring about the great event of dethroning PHILIP, were those which the duke of MARLBOROUGH was able to make. He took three towns in one thousand seven hundred and ten, Aire, Bethune, and St. Venant: and one, Bouchain, in one thousand seven hundred and eleven. Now this conquest being in fact the only one the confederates made that year, Bouchain may be said properly and truly to have cost our nation very near seven millions sterling; for your lordship will find, I believe, that the charge of the war for that year amounted to no less. It is true that the duke of MARLBOROUGH had proposed a very great project, by which incursions would have been made during the winter into France; the next campaign might have been opened early on our side and several other great and obvious advantages might have been obtained: but the Dutch refused to contribute, even less than their proportion, for the queen had offered to take the deficiency on herself, to the expence of barracks and forage; and disappointed by their obstinacy the whole design.

WE were then amused with visionary schemes of marching our whole army, in a year or two more, and after a town or two more were taken, directly to Paris, or at least into the heart of France. But was this so easy or so sure a game? The French expected we would play it. Their generals had visited

visited the several posts they might take, when our army should enter France, to retard, to incommode, to distress us in our march, and even to make a decisive stand and to give us battle. I take what I say here from indisputable authority, that of the persons consulted and employed in preparing for this great distress. Had we been beaten, or had we been forced to retire towards our own frontier in the Low Countries, after penetrating into France, the hopes on which we protracted the war would have been disappointed, and I think the most sanguine would have then repented refusing the offers made at Gertruydenburg. But if we had beaten the French, for it was scarce lawful in those days of our presumption to suppose the contrary; would the whole monarchy of Spain have been our immediate and certain prize? Suppose, and I suppose it on good grounds, my lord, that the French had resolved to defend their country inch by inch, and that LEWIS the fourteenth had determined to retire with his court to Lions or elsewhere, and to defend the passage of the Loire, when he could no longer defend that of the Seine, rather than submit to the terms imposed on him: what should we have done in this case? Must we not have accepted such a peace as we had refused; or have protracted the war till we had conquered France first, in order to conquer Spain afterwards? Did we hope for revolutions in France? We had hoped for them in Spain: and we should have been bubbles of our hopes in both. That there was a spirit raised against the government of LEWIS the fourteenth, in his court, nay in his family, and that strange schemes of private ambition were formed and forming there, I cannot doubt: and some effects of this spirit produced perhaps the greatest mortifications that he suffered in the latter part of his reign.

A LIGHT instance of this spirit is all I will quote at this time. I supped in the year one thousand seven hundred and fifteen, at a house in France, where two \* persons of no small figure, who had been in great company that night, arrived very late. The conversation turned on the events of the precedent war, and the negotiations of the late peace. In the process of the conversation, one of them † broke loose, and said, directing his discourse to me, *Vous auriez pu nous écraser dans ce temps-là: pourquoi ne l'avez vous pas fait?* I answered him coolly, *Par ce que dans ce temps-là,*

*nous*

\* The dukes de la FEUILLADE and MORTEMAR.

† La FEUILLADE.



*nous n'avons plus crainé votre puissance.* This anecdote, too trivial for history, may find its place in a letter, and may serve to confirm what I have admitted, that there were persons even in France, who expected to find their private account in the distress of their country. But these persons were a few, men of wild imaginations and strong passions, more enterprizing than capable, and of more name than credit. In general, the endeavours of LEWIS the fourteenth, and the sacrifices he offered to make in order to obtain a peace, had attached his people more than ever to him : and if LEWIS had determined not to go farther than he had offered at Gertruydenberg, in abandoning his grandson, the French nation would not have abandoned him.

BUT to resume what I have said or hinted already, the necessary consequences of protracting the war in order to dethrone PHILIP, from the year one thousand seven hundred and eleven inclusively, could be no other than these : our design of penetrating into France might have been defeated, and have become fatal to us by a reverse of fortune : our first success might not have obliged the French to submit ; and we might have had France to conquer, after we had failed in our first attempt to conquer Spain, and even in order to proceed to a second : the French might have submitted, and the Spaniards not ; and whilst the former had been employed to force the latter, according to the scheme of the allies ; or whilst, the latter submitting likewise, PHILIP had evacuated Spain, the high allies might have gone together by the ears about dividing the spoil, and disposing of the crown of Spain. To these issues were things brought by protracting the war ; by refusing to make peace, on the principles of the grand alliance at worst, in one thousand seven hundred and six ; and by refusing to grant it, even on those of the new plan, in one thousand seven hundred and ten. Such contingent events as I have mentioned stood in prospect before us. The end of the war was removed out of sight ; and they, who clamoured rather than argued for the continuation of it, contented themselves to affirm that France was not enough reduced, and that no peace ought to be made as long as a prince of the house of Bourbon remained on the Spanish throne. When they would think France enough reduced, it was impossible to guess. Whether they intended to join the Imperial and Spanish crowns on the head of CHARLES, who had declared his irrevocable resolution to continue the war till the conditions insisted upon at Gertruydenberg



denberg were obtained? whether they intended to bestow Spain and the Indies on some other prince? and how this great alteration in their own plan should be effected by common consent? how possession should be given to CHARLES or to any other prince, not only of Spain but of all the Spanish dominions out of Europe; where the attachment to PHILIP was at least as strong as in Castile, and where it would not be so easy, the distance and extent of these dominions considered, to oblige the Spaniards to submit to another government? These points, and many more equally necessary to be determined, and equally difficult to prepare, were neither determined nor prepared; so that we were reduced to carry on the war, after the death of the emperor JOSEPH, without any positive scheme agreed to as the scheme of the future peace by the allies. That of the grand alliance, we had long before renounced. That of the new plan was become ineligible; and if it had been eligible, it would have been impracticable, because of the division it would have created among the allies themselves: several of whom would not have consented, notwithstanding his irrevocable resolution, that the emperor should be king of Spain. I know not what part the protracters of the war, in the depth of their policy, intended to take. Our nation had contributed, and acted so long under the direction of their councils, for the grandeur of the house of Austria, like one of the hereditary kingdoms usurped by that family, that it is lawful to think their intention might be to unite the Imperial and Spanish crowns. But I rather think they had no very determinate view, beyond that of continuing the war as long as they could. The late lord OXFORD told me, that my lord SOMERS being pressed, I know not on what occasion nor by whom, on the unnecessary and ruinous continuation of the war; instead of giving reasons to shew the necessity of it, contented himself to reply, that he had been bred up in a hatred of France. This was a strange reply for a wise man: and yet I know not whether he could have given a better then, or whether any of his pupils could give a better now.

THE whig party in general acquired great and just popularity, in the reign of our CHARLES the second, by the clamour they raised against the conduct of that prince in foreign affairs. They who succeeded to the name rather than the principles of this party, after the revolution, and who have had the administration of the government in their hands with very little interruption ever since, pretending to act on the  
same

same principle, have run into an extreme as vicious and as contrary to all the rules of good policy, as that which their predecessors exclaimed against. The old whigs complained of the inglorious figure we made, whilst our court was the bubble, and our king the pensioner of France; and insisted that the growing ambition and power of LEWIS the fourteenth should be opposed in time. The modern whigs boasted and still boast, of the glorious figure we made, whilst we reduced ourselves, by their councils, and under their administrations, to be the bubbles of our pensioners, that is of our allies: and whilst we measured our efforts in war, and the continuation of them, without any regard to the interests and abilities of our own country; without a just and sober regard, such an one as contemplates objects in their true light, and sees them in their true magnitude, to the general system of power in Europe; and, in short, with a principal regard merely to particular interests at home and abroad. I say at home and abroad; because it is not less true, that they have sacrificed the wealth of their country to the forming and maintaining a party at home, than that they have done so to the forming and maintaining, beyond all pretences of necessity, alliances abroad. These general assertions may be easily justified without having recourse to private anecdotes, as your lordship will find when you consider the whole series of our conduct in the two wars; in that which preceded, and that which succeeded immediately the beginning of the present century, but above all in the last of them. In the administrations that preceded the revolution, trade had flourished, and our nation had grown opulent: but the general interest of Europe had been too much neglected by us; and slavery, under the umbrage of prerogative, had been well-nigh established among us. In those that have followed, taxes upon taxes, and debts upon debts, have been perpetually accumulated, till a small number of families have grown into immense wealth, and national beggary has been brought upon us; under the specious pretences of supporting a common cause against France, reducing her exorbitant power, and poizing that of Europe more equally in the public balance: laudable designs no doubt, as far as they were real, but such as, being converted into mere pretences, have been productive of much evil; some of which we feel and have long felt, and some will extend their consequences to our latest posterity. The reign of prerogative was short: and the evils and the dangers, to which we were exposed by

it, ended with it. But the reign of false and squandering policy has lasted long, it lasts still, and will finally complete our ruin. Beggary has been the consequence of slavery in some countries: slavery will be probably the consequence of beggary in ours; and if it is so, we know at whose door to lay it. If we had finished the war in one thousand seven hundred and six, we should have reconciled, like a wise people, our foreign and our domestic interests as nearly as possible: we should have secured the former sufficiently, and not have sacrificed the latter as entirely as we did by the prosecution of the war afterwards. You will not be able to see without astonishment, how the charge of the war increased yearly upon us from the beginning of it; nor how immense a sum we paid in the course of it to supply the deficiencies of our confederates. Your astonishment, and indignation too, will increase, when you come to compare the progress that was made from the year one thousand seven hundred and six exclusively, with the expence of more than thirty millions (I do not exaggerate tho I write upon memory) that this progress cost us, to the year one thousand seven hundred and eleven inclusively. Upon this view, your lordship will be persuaded that it was high time to take the resolution of making peace, when the queen thought fit to change her ministry towards the end of the year one thousand seven hundred and ten. It was high time indeed to save our country from absolute insolvency and bankruptcy, by putting an end to a scheme of conduct, which the prejudices of a party, the whim of some particular men, the private interest of more, and the ambition and avarice of our allies, who had been invited as it were to a scramble by the preliminaries of one thousand seven hundred and nine, alone maintained. The persons therefore, who came into power at this time, hearkened, and they did well to hearken, to the first overtures that were made them. The disposition of their enemies invited them to do so, but that of their friends, and that of a party at home who had nursed, and been nursed by the war, might have deterred them from it; for the difficulties and dangers, to which they must be exposed in carrying forward this great work, could escape none of them. In a letter to a friend it may be allowed me to say, that they did not escape me: and that I foresaw, as contingent but not improbable events, a good part of what has happened to me since. Tho it was a duty therefore that we owed to our country, to deliver her from the necessity of bearing any longer

so



so unequal a part in so unnecessary a war, yet was there some degree of merit in performing it. I think so strongly in this manner, I am so incorrigible, my lord, that if I could be placed in the same circumstances again, I would take the same resolution, and act the same part. Age and experience might enable me to act with more ability, and greater skill; but all I have suffered since the death of the queen should not hinder me from acting. Notwithstanding this, I shall not be surprized if you think that the peace of Utrecht was not answerable to the success of the war, nor to the efforts made in it. I think so myself, and have always owned, even when it was making and made, that I thought so. Since we had committed a successful folly, we ought to have reaped more advantage from it than we did: and whether we had left PHILIP, or placed another prince on the throne of Spain, we ought to have reduced the power of France, and to have strengthened her neighbours, much more than we did. We ought to have reduced her power for generations to come, and not to have contented ourselves with a momentary reduction of it. France was exhausted to a great degree of men and money, and her government had no credit: but they, who took this for a sufficient reduction of her power, looked but a little way before them, and reasoned too superficially. Several such there were however; for as it has been said, that there is no extravagancy which some philosopher or other has not maintained, so your experience, young as you are, must have shewn you, that there is no absurd extreme, into which our party-politicians of Great-Britain are not prone to fall, concerning the state and conduct of public affairs. But if France was exhausted; so were we, and so were the Dutch. Famine rendered her condition much more miserable than ours, at one time, in appearance and in reality too. But as soon as this accident, that had distressed the French and frightened LEWIS the fourteenth to the utmost degree, and the immediate consequences of it were over; it was obvious to observe, tho few made the observation, that whilst we were unable to raise in a year, by some millions at least, the expences of the year, the French were willing and able to bear the imposition of the tenth, over and above all the other taxes that had been laid upon them. This observation had the weight it deserved; and surely it deserved to have some among those who made it, at the time spoken of, and who did not think that the war was to be continued as long as a parliament could be prevailed on to vote money. But sup-  
posing



posing it to have deserved none, supposing the power of France to have been reduced as low as you please, with respect to her inward state; yet still I affirm, that such a reduction could not be permanent, and was not therefore sufficient. Whoever knows the nature of her government, the temper of her people, and the natural advantages she has in commerce over all the nations that surround her, knows that an arbitrary government, and the temper of her people enable her on particular occasions to throw off a load of debt much more easily, and with consequences much less to be feared, than any of her neighbours can: that altho, in the general course of things, trade be cramped and industry vexed by this arbitrary government, yet neither one nor the other is oppressed; and the temper of the people, and the natural advantages of the country, are such, that how great soever her distress be at any point of time, twenty years of tranquillity suffice to re establish her affairs, and to enrich her again at the expence of all the nations of Europe. If any one doubts of this, let him consider the condition in which this kingdom was left by LEWIS the fourteenth; the strange pranks the late duke of Orleans played, during his regency and administration, with the whole system of public revenue, and private property; and then let him tell himself, that the revenues of France, the tenth taken off, exceed all the expences of her government by many millions of livres already, and will exceed them by many more in another year.

UPON the whole matter, my lord, the low and exhausted state to which France was reduced, by the last great war, was but a momentary reduction of her power: and whatever real and more lasting reduction the treaty of Utrecht brought about in some instances, it was not sufficient. The power of France would not have appeared as great as it did, when England and Holland armed themselves and armed all Germany, against her, if she had lain as open to the invasions of her enemies, as her enemies lay to her's. Her inward strength was great; but the strength of those frontiers which LEWIS the fourteenth was almost forty years in forming, and which the folly of all his neighbours in their turns suffered him to form, made this strength as formidable as it became. The true reduction of the exorbitant power of France, I take no notice of chimerical projects about changing her government, consisted therefore in disarming her frontiers, and fortifying the barriers against her by the cession and demolition of many more places than she yielded up at Utrecht; but not of more  
than

than she might have been obliged to sacrifice to her own immediate relief, and to the future security of her neighbours. That she was not obliged to make these sacrifices, I affirm was owing solely to those who opposed the peace: and I am willing to put my whole credit with your lordship, and the whole merits of a cause that has been so much contested, on this issue. I say a cause that has been so much contested; for in truth I think it is no longer a doubt any where, except in British pamphlets, whether the conduct of those who neither declined treating, as was done in one thousand seven hundred and six; nor pretended to treat without a design of concluding, as was done in one thousand seven hundred nine and ten, but carried the great work of the peace forward to its consummation; or the conduct of those who opposed this work in every step of its progress, saved the power of France from a greater and a sufficient reduction at the treaty of Utrecht? The very ministers, who were employed in this fatal opposition, are obliged to confess this truth. How should they deny it? Those of Vienna may complain that the emperor had not the entire Spanish monarchy, or those of Holland that the states were not made masters directly and indirectly of the whole Low Countries. But neither they, nor any one else that has any sense of shame about him, can deny that the late queen, tho she was resolved to treat because she was resolved to finish the war, yet was to the utmost degree desirous to treat in a perfect union with her allies, and to procure them all the reasonable terms they could expect; and much better than those they reduced themselves to the necessity of accepting, by endeavouring to wrest the negotiation out of her hands. The dis-union of the allies gave France the advantages she improved. The sole question is, who caused this dis-union? and that will be easily decided by every impartial man, who informs himself carefully of the public anecdotes of that time. If the private anecdotes were to be laid open as well as those, and I think it almost time they should, the whole monstrous scene would appear, and shock the eye of every honest man. I do not intend to descend into many particulars at this time: but whenever I, or any other person as well informed as I, shall descend into a full deduction of such particulars, it will become undeniably evident, that the most violent opposition imaginable, carried on by the Germans and the Dutch in league with a party in Britain, began as soon as the first overtures were made to the queen; before she had so much

as begun to treat : and was therefore an opposition not to this or that plan of treaty, but in truth to all treaty ; and especially to one wherein Great-Britain took the lead, or was to have any particular advantage. That the Imperialists meant no treaty, unless a preliminary and impracticable condition of it was to set the crown of Spain on the emperor's head, will appear from this ; that prince EUGENE, when he came into England, long after the death of JOSEPH and elevation of CHARLES, upon an errand most unworthy of so great a man, treated always on this supposition : and I remember with how much inward impatience I assisted at conferences held with him concerning quotas for renewing the war in Spain, in the very same room, at the cockpit, where the queen's ministers had been told in plain terms, a little before, by those of other allies, ' that their masters would not ' consent that the Imperial and Spanish crowns should unite ' on the same head.' That the Dutch were not averse to all treaty, but meant none wherein Great-Britain was to have any particular advantage, will appear from this ; that their minister declared himself ready and authorized to stop the opposition made to the queen's measures, by presenting a memorial, wherein he would declare, ' that his masters entered ' into them, and were resolved not to continue the war for ' the recovery of Spain, provided the queen would consent ' that they should garrison Gibraltar and Portmahon jointly ' with us, and share equally the Asiento, the South Sea ship, ' and whatever should be granted by the Spaniards to the queen ' and her subjects.' That the whigs engaged in this league with foreign powers against their country, as well as their queen, and with a phrenzy more unaccountable than that which made and maintained the solemn league and covenant formerly, will appear from this ; that their attempts were directed not only to wrest the negotiations out of the queen's hands, but to oblige their country to carry on the war, on the same unequal foot that had cost her already about twenty millions more than she ought to have contributed to it. For they not only continued to abet the emperor, whose inability to supply his quota was confessed ; but the Dutch likewise, after the states had refused to ratify the treaty their minister signed at London towards the end of the year one thousand seven hundred and eleven, and by which the queen united herself more closely than ever to them ; engaging to pursue the war, to conclude the peace, and to guaranty it, when



concluded, jointly with them; 'provided they would keep the engagements they had taken with her, and the conditions of proportionate expence under which our nation had entered into the war.' Upon such schemes as these was the opposition to the treaty of Utrecht carried on: and the means employed, and the means projected to be employed, were worthy of such schemes; open, direct, and indecent defiance of legal authority, secret conspiracies against the state, and base machinations against particular men, who had no other crime than that of endeavouring to conclude a war, under the authority of the queen, which a party in the nation endeavoured to prolong, against her authority. Had the good policy of concluding the war been doubtful, it was certainly as lawful for those who thought it good to advise it, as it had been for those who thought it bad to advise the contrary: and the decision of the sovereign on the throne ought to have terminated the contest. But he who had judged by the appearances of things on one side, at that time, would have been apt to think, that putting an end to the war, or to Magna Charta, was the same thing; that the queen on the throne had no right to govern independently of her successor; nor any of her subjects a right to administer the government under her, tho' called to it by her, except those whom she had thought fit to lay aside. Extravagant as these principles are, no other could justify the conduct held at that time by those who opposed the peace: and as I said just now, that the phrenzy of this league was more unaccountable than that of the solemn league and covenant, I might have added, that it was not very many degrees less criminal. Some of those, who charged the queen's ministers, after her death, with imaginary treasons, had been guilty during her life of real treasons: and I can compare the folly and violence of the spirit that prevailed at that time, both before the conclusion of the peace and under pretence of danger to the succession after it, to nothing more nearly than to the folly and violence of the spirit that seized the tories soon after the accession of GEORGE the first. The latter indeed, which was provoked by unjust and impolitic persecution, broke out in open rebellion. The former might have done so, if the queen had lived a little longer. But to return.

THE obstinate adherence of the Dutch to this league, in opposition to the queen, rendered the conferences of Utrecht, when they were opened, no better than mock conferences.

Had



Had the men who governed that commonwealth been wise and honest enough to unite, at least then, cordially with the queen, and since they could not hinder a congress, to act in concert with her in it; we should have been still in time to maintain a sufficient union among the allies, and a sufficient superiority over the French. All the specific demands that the former made, as well as the Dutch themselves, either to incumber the negotiation, or to have in reserve, according to the artifice usually employed on such occasions, certain points from which to depart in the course of it with advantage, would not have been obtained; but all the essential demands, all in particular that were really necessary to secure the barriers in the Low Countries and of the four circles against France, would have been so. For France must have continued, in this case, rather to sue for peace, than to treat on an equal foot. The first dauphin, son of LEWIS the fourteenth, died several months before this congress began: the second dauphin, his grandson, and the wife and the eldest son of this prince, died, soon after it began, of the same unknown distemper, and were buried together in the same grave. Such family misfortunes, following a long series of national misfortunes, made the old king, tho he bore them with much seeming magnanimity, desirous to get out of the war at any tolerable rate, that he might not run the risque of leaving a child of five years old, the present king, engaged in it. The queen did all that was morally possible, except giving up her honor in the negotiation, and the interests of her subjects in the conditions of peace, to procure this union with the states general. But all she could do was vain; and the same phrenzy, that had hindered the Dutch from improving to their and to the common advantage the public misfortunes of France, hindered them from improving to the same purposes the private misfortunes of the house of Bourbon. They continued to flatter themselves that they should force the queen out of her measures, by their intrigues with the party in Britain who opposed these measures, and even raise an insurrection against her. But these intrigues, and those of prince EUGENE, were known and disappointed; and monsieur BURY had the mortification to be reproached with them publicly, when he came to take leave of the lords of the council, by the earl of OXFORD; who entered into many particulars that could not be denied, of the private transactions of this sort, to which BURY had been a party, in compliance with his instructions,

tions, and as I believe, much against his own sense and inclinations. As the season for taking the field advanced, the league proposed to defeat the success of the congress by the events of the campaign. But instead of defeating the success of the congress, the events of the campaign served only to turn this success in favour of France. At the beginning of the year, the queen and the states, in concert, might have given the law to friend and foe, with great advantage to the former; and with such a detriment to the latter, as the causes of the war rendered just, the events of it reasonable, and the objects of it necessary. At the end of the year, the allies were no longer in a state of giving, nor the French of receiving the law; and the Dutch had recourse to the queen's good offices, when they could oppose and durst insult her no longer. Even then, these offices were employed with zeal, and with some effect, for them.

Thus the war ended, much more favourably to France than she expected, or they who put an end to it designed. The queen would have humbled and weakened this power. The allies who opposed her would have crushed it, and have raised another as exorbitant on the ruins of it. Neither one nor the other succeeded, and they who meant to ruin the French power preserved it, by opposing those who meant to reduce it.

SINCE I have mentioned the events of the year one thousand seven hundred and twelve, and the decisive turn they gave to the negotiations in favour of France, give me leave to say something more on this subject. You will find that I shall do so with much impartiality. The disastrous events of this campaign in the Low Countries, and the consequences of them, have been imputed to the separation of the British troops from the army of the allies. The clamour against this measure was great at that time, and the prejudices which this clamour raised are great still among some men. But as clamour raised these prejudices, other prejudices gave birth to this clamour: and it is no wonder they should do so among persons bent on continuing the war; since I own very freely, that when the first step that led to this separation came to my knowledge, which was not an hour, by the way, before I writ by the queen's order to the duke of ORMOND, in the very words in which the order was advised and given, 'that he should not engage in any league, nor hazard a battle, till further order,' I was surprized and hurt. So much, that if I had

had had an opportunity of speaking in private to the queen, after I had received monsieur DE TORCY's letter to me on the subject, and before she went into the council, I should have spoken to her, I think, in the first heat, against it. The truth is however, that the step was justifiable at that point of time in every respect, and therefore that the consequences are to be charged to the account of those who drew them on themselves, not to the account of the queen, nor of the minister who advised her. The step was justifiable to the allies surely, since the queen took no more upon her, no not so much by far, in making it, as many of them had done by suspending, or endangering, or defeating operations in the heat of the war, when they declined to send their troops, or delayed the march of them, or neglected the preparations they were obliged to make, on the most frivolous pretences. Your lordship will find in the course of your enquiries many particular instances of what is here pointed out in general. But I cannot help descending into some few of those that regard the emperor and the states general, who cried the loudest and with the most effect, tho they had the least reason, on account of their own conduct, to complain of the queen's. With what face could the emperor, for instance, presume to complain of the orders sent to the duke of ORMOND? I say nothing of his deficiencies, which were so great, that he had at this very time little more than one regiment that could be said properly to act against France and Spain at his sole charge; as I affirmed to prince EUGENE before the lords of the council, and demonstrated upon paper the next day. I say nothing of all that preceded the year one thousand seven hundred and seven, on which I should have much to say. But I desire your lordship only to consider, what you will find to have passed after the famous year one thousand seven hundred and six. Was it with the queen's approbation or against her will, that the emperor made the treaty for the evacuation of Lombardy, and let out so great a number of French regiments time enough to recruit themselves at home, to march into Spain, and to destroy the British forces at Almanza? Was it with her approbation or against her will, that instead of employing all his forces and all his endeavours, to make the greatest design of the whole war, the enterprize on Thoulon, succeed, he detached twelve thousand men to reduce the kingdom of Naples, that must have fallen of course? and that an opportunity of ruining the whole maritime force of France, and of ruining or subduing her provinces on that side, was lost merely by



this unnecessary diversion, and by the conduct of prince EU-GENE, which left no room to doubt that he gave occasion to this fatal disappointment on purpose, and in concert with the court of Vienna.

TURN your eyes, my lord, on the conduct of the states, and you will find reason to be astonished at the arrogance of the men who governed in them at this time, and who presumed to exclaim against a queen of Great Britain, for doing what their deputies had done more than once in that very country, and in the course of that very war. In the year one thousand seven hundred and twelve, at the latter end of a war, when conferences for treating a peace were opened, when the least sinister event in the field would take off from that superiority which the allies had in the congress, and when the past success of the war had already given them as much of this superiority as they wanted to obtain a safe, advantageous, honorable and lasting peace, the queen directed her general to suspend till further order the operations of her troops. In one thousand seven hundred and three, in the beginning of a war, when something was to be risked or no success to be expected, and when the bad situation of affairs in Germany and Italy required in a particular manner, that efforts should be made in the Low Countries, and that the war should not languish there whilst it was unsuccessful every where else : the duke of MARLBOROUGH determined to attack the French, but the Dutch deputies would not suffer their troops to go on ; defeated his design in the very moment of it's execution, if I remember well, and gave no other reason for their proceeding than that which is a reason against every battle, the possibility of being beaten. The circumstance of proximity to their frontier was urged I know, and it was said, that their provinces would be exposed to the incursions of the French if they lost the battle. But besides other answers to this vain pretence, it was obvious that they had ventured battles as near home as this would have been fought, and that the way to remove the enemy farther off was by action not inaction. Upon the whole matter ; the Dutch deputies stopped the progress of the confederate army at this time, by exercising an arbitrary and independent authority over the troops of the states. In one thousand seven hundred and five, when the success of the preceding campaign should have given them an entire confidence in the duke of MARLBOROUGH'S conduct, when returning from the Moselle to the Low Countries, he began to make himself and the common cause a-  
mends.



mends, for the disappointment which pique and jealousy in the prince of BADEN, or usual sloth and negligence in the Germans, had occasioned just before, by forcing the French lines; when he was in the full pursuit of this advantage, and when he was marching to attack an enemy half defeated, and more than half dispirited; nay when he had made his dispositions for attacking, and part of his troops had passed the Dyle—the deputies of the states once more tyed up his hands, took from him an opportunity too fair to be lost; for these, I think, were some of the terms of his complaint: and in short the confederacy received an affront at least, where we might have obtained a victory. Let this that has been said serve as a specimen of the independency on the queen, her councils, and her generals, with which these powers acted in the course of the war; who were not ashamed to find fault that the queen, once, and at the latter end of it, presumed to suspend the operations of her troops till farther order. But be it that they foresaw what this farther order would be. They foresaw then, that as soon as Dunkirk should be put into the queen's hands, she would consent to a suspension of arms for two months, and invite them to do the same. Neither this foresight, nor the strong declaration which the bishop of Bristol made by the queen's order at Utrecht, and which shewed them that her resolution was taken not to submit to the league into which they had entered against her, could prevail on them to make a right use of these two months, by endeavouring to renew their union and good understanding with the queen; tho I can say with the greatest truth, and they could not doubt of it at the time, that she would have gone more than half-way to meet them, and that her ministers would have done their utmost to bring it about. Even then we might have resumed the superiority we began to lose in the congress; for the queen, and the states uniting, the principal allies would have united with them: and, in this case, it would have been so much the interest of France to avoid any chance of seeing the war renewed, that she must, and she would, have made sure of peace, during the suspension, on much worse terms for herself and for Spain, than she made it afterwards. But the prudent and sober States continued to act like froward children, or like men drunk with resentment and passion; and such will the conduct be of the wisest governments in every circumstance, where a spirit of faction and of private interest prevails, among those who are at the head, over reason of state. After laying aside all

decency in their behaviour towards the Queen, they laid aside all caution for themselves. They declared "they would carry on the war without her." Landrecy seemed, in their esteem, of more importance than Dunkirk : and the opportunity of wasting some French provinces, or of putting the whole event of the war on the decision of another battle, preferable to the other measure that lay open to them ; that, I mean, of trying, in good earnest, and in an honest concert with the Queen, during the suspension of arms, whether such terms of peace, as ought to satisfy them and the other allies, might not be imposed on France ?

If the confederate army had broke into France, the campaign before this, or in any former campaign ; and if the Germans and the Dutch had exercised then the same inhumanity, as the French had exercised in their provinces in former wars ; if they had burned Versailles, and even Paris, and if they had disturbed the ashes of the dead princes that repose at Saint Denis, every good man would have felt the horror, that such cruelties inspire : no man could have said that the retaliation was unjust. But in one thousand seven hundred and twelve, it was too late, in every respect, to meditate such projects. If the French had been unprepared to defend their frontier, either for want of means, or in a vain confidence that the peace would be made, as our king CHARLES the second was unprepared to defend his coast at the latter end of his first war with Holland, the allies might have played a sure game in satisfying their vengeance on the French, as the Dutch did on us in one thousand six hundred and sixty seven, and imposing harder terms on them, than those they offered, or would have accepted. But this was not the case. The French army was, I believe, more numerous than the army of the allies, even before separation, and certainly in much a better condition than two or three years before, when a deluge of blood was spilt to dislodge them, for we did no more, at Malplaquet. Would the Germans and the Dutch have found it more easy to force them at this time, than it was at that ? Would not the French have fought with as much obstinacy to save Paris, as they did to save Mons ? and, with all the regard due to the duke of ORMONDE and to prince EUGENE, was the absence of the duke of MARLBOROUGH of no consequence ? Turn this affair every way in your thoughts, my lord, and you will find that the Germans and the Dutch had nothing in theirs, but to break, at any rate, and at any risque, the negotiations that were begun, and to reduce Great Britain

tain to the necessity of continuing, what she had been too long, a province of the confederacy. A province indeed; and not one of the best treated; since the confederates assumed a right of obliging her to keep her pacts with them, and of dispensing with their obligations to her; of exhausting her, without rule, or proportion, or measure, in the support of a war, to which she alone contributed more than all of them, and in which she had no longer an immediate interest, nor even any remote interest that was not common, or, with respect to her, very dubious; and, after all this, of complaining that the Queen presumed to hearken to overtures of peace, and to set a negotiation on foot, whilst their humour and ambition required that the war should be prolonged for an indefinite time, and for a purpose that was either bad or indeterminate.

THE suspension of arms, that began in the Low Countries, was continued, and extended afterwards by the act I signed at Fontainbleau. The fortune of the war turned at the same time: and all those disgraces followed, which obliged the Dutch to treat, and to desire the assistance of the Queen, whom they had set at defiance so lately. This assistance they had, as effectually as it could be given in the circumstances, to which they had reduced themselves, and the whole alliance: and the peace of Great Britain, Portugal Savoy, Prussia, and the States General, was made, without his Imperial majesty's concurrence, in the spring of one thousand seven hundred and thirteen; as it might have been made, much more advantageously for them all, in that of one thousand seven hundred and twelve. Less obstinacy on the part of the States, and perhaps more decisive resolutions on the part of the Queen, would have wound up all these divided threads in one, and have finished this great work much sooner and better. I say, perhaps more decisive resolutions on the part of the Queen; because, altho I think that I should have conveyed her orders for signing a treaty of peace with France, before the armies took the field, much more willingly, than I executed them afterwards in signing that of the cessation of arms; yet I do not presume to decide, but shall desire your lordship, to do so, on a review of all circumstances, some of which I shall just mention.

THE league made for protracting the war having opposed the Queen to the utmost of their power, and by means of every sort, from the first appearances of a negotiation; the general effect, of this violent opposition, on her and her ministers



nisters was, to make them proceed by slower and more cautious steps: the particular effect of it was, to oblige them to open the eyes of the nation, and to inflame the people with a desire of peace, by shewing, in the most public and solemn manner, how unequally we were burdened, and how unfairly we were treated by our allies. The first gave an air of diffidence and timidity to their conduct, which encouraged the league, and gave vigour to the opposition. The second irritated the Dutch particularly; for the emperor and the other allies had the modesty at least, not to pretend to bear any proportion in the expence of the war: and thus the two powers, whose union was the most essential were the most at variance, and the Queen was obliged to act in a closer concert with her enemy who desired peace, than she would have done if her allies had been less obstinately bent to protract the war. During these transactions, my lord OXFORD, who had his correspondencies apart, and a private thread of negotiation always in his hands, entertained hopes that PHILIP would be brought to abandon Spain in favour of his father-in-law, and to content himself with the states of that prince, the kingdom of Sicily, and the preservation of his right of succession to the crown of France. Whether my lord had any particular reasons for entertaining these hopes, besides the general reasons founded on the condition of France, on that of the Bourbon family, and on the disposition of LEWIS the fourteenth, I doubt very much. That LEWIS, who fought, and had need of seeking peace, almost at any rate, and who saw that he could not obtain it, even of the Queen, unless PHILIP abandoned immediately the crown of Spain, or abandoned immediately, by renunciation and a solemn act of exclusion, all pretension to that of France; that LEWIS was desirous of the former, I cannot doubt. That PHILIP would have abandoned Spain, with the equivalents that have been mentioned, or either of them, I believe likewise; if the present king of France had died, when his father, mother, and eldest brother did: for they all had the same distemper. But LEWIS would use no violent means to force his grandson; the Queen would not continue the war to force him; PHILIP was too obstinate, and his wife too ambitious, to quit the crown of Spain, when they had discovered our weakness, and felt their own strength in that country, by their success in the campaign of one thousand seven hundred and ten: after which my lord STANHOPE himself was convinced that Spain could not be conquered, nor kept, if it was conquered, without a much greater army, than it was possible for



us to send thither. In that situation it was wild to imagine, as the earl of OXFORD imagined, or pretended to imagine, that they would quit the crown of Spain, for a remote and uncertain prospect of succeeding to that of France, and to content themselves to be, in the mean time, princes of very small dominions, PHILIP therefore, after struggling long that he might not be obliged to make his option till the succession of France lay open to him, was obliged to make it, and made it, for Spain. Now this, my lord, was the very crisis of the negotiation: and to this point I apply what I said above of the effect of more decisive resolutions on the part of the queen. It was plain, that, if she made the campaign in concert with her allies, she could be no longer mistress of the negotiations, nor have almost a chance for conducting them to the issue she proposed. Our ill success in the field would have rendered the French less tractable in the congress: our good success there would have rendered the allies so. On this principle the queen suspended the operations of her troops, and then concluded the cessation.

COMPARE now the appearances and effect of this measure, with the appearances and effect, that another measure would have had. In order to arrive at any peace, it was necessary to do what the queen did, or to do more: and, in order to arrive at a good one, it was necessary to be prepared to carry on the war, as well as to make a shew of it; for she had the hard task upon her, of guarding against her allies, and her enemies both. But in that ferment, when few men considered any thing coolly, the conduct of her general, after he took the field, tho he covered the allies in the siege of Quesnoy, corresponded ill, in appearance, with the declarations of carrying on the war vigorously, that had been made, on several occasions, before the campaign opened. It had an air of double dealing; and as such it passed among those, who did not combine in their thoughts all the circumstances of the conjuncture, or who were infatuated with the notional necessity of continuing the war. The clamour could not have been greater, if the queen had signed her peace separately: and, I think, the appearances might have been explained as favourably in one case, as in the other. From the death of the emperor JOSEPH, it was neither our interest, nor the common interest, well understood, to set the crown of Spain on the present emperor's head. As soon therefore as PHILIP had made

his

his option, and if she had taken this resolution early, his option would have been sooner made, I presume that the queen might have declared, that she would not continue the war an hour longer to procure Spain for his Imperial majesty; that the engagements, she had taken whilst he was archduke, bound her no more; that, by his accession to the empire, the very nature of them was altered; that she took effectual measures to prevent, in any future time, an union of the crowns of France and Spain; and, upon the same principle, would not consent, much less fight, to bring about an immediate union of the Imperial and Spanish crowns; that they, who insisted to protract the war, intended this union; that they could intend nothing else, since they ventured to break with her, rather than to treat, and were so eager to put the reasonable satisfaction, that they might have in every other case without hazard, on the uncertain events of war; that she would not be imposed on any longer in this manner, and that she had ordered her ministers to sign her treaty with France, on the surrender of Dunkirk into her hands; that she pretended not to prescribe to her allies, but that she had insisted, in their behalf, on certain conditions, that France was obliged to grant to those of them, who should sign their treaties at the same time as she did, or who should consent to an immediate cessation of arms, and during the cessation treat under her mediation. There had been more frankness, and more dignity in this proceeding, and the effect must have been more advantageous. France would have granted more for a separate peace, than for a cessation: and the Dutch would have been more influenced by the prospect of one, than of the other; especially since this proceeding would have been very different from theirs at Munster, and at Nimeghen, where they abandoned their allies, without any other pretence than the particular advantage they found in doing so. A suspension of the operations of the queen's troops, nay a cessation of arms between her and France, was not definitive; and they might, and they did, hope to drag her back under their, and the German yoke. This therefore was not sufficient to check their obstinacy, nor to hinder them from making all the unfortunate haste they did make to get themselves beaten at Denain. But they would possibly have laid aside their vain hopes, if they had seen the queen's ministers ready to sign her treaty of peace, and those of some principal allies ready to sign at the same time; in which case the mischief, that followed, had been prevented, and

and better terms of peace had been obtained for the confederacy : a prince of the house of Bourbon, who could never be king of France, would have sat on the Spanish throne, instead of an emperor : the Spanish scepter would have been weakened in the hands of one, and the Imperial scepter would have been strengthened in those of the other : France would have had no opportunity of recovering from former blows, nor of finishing a long unsuccessful war by two successful campaigns : her ambition, and her power, would have declined with her old king, and under the minority that followed : one of them at least might have been so reduced by the terms of peace, if the defeat of the allies in one thousand seven hundred and twelve, and the loss of so many towns as the French took in that and the following year, had been prevented, that the other would have been no longer formidable, even supposing it to have continued ; whereas I suppose that the tranquillity of Europe is more due, at this time, to want of ambition, than to want of power, on the part of France. But, to carry the comparison of these two measures to the end, it may be supposed that the Dutch would have taken the same part, on the queen's declaring a separate peace, as they took on her declaring a cessation. The preparations for the campaign in the Low Countries were made ; the Dutch, like the other confederates, had a just confidence in their own troops, and an unjust contempt for those of the enemy ; they were transported from their usual sobriety and caution by the ambitious prospect of large acquisitions, which had been opened artfully to them ; the rest of the confederate army was composed of Imperial and German troops : so that the Dutch, the Imperialists, and the other Germans, having an interest to decide which was no longer the interest of the whole confederacy, they might have united against the queen in one case, as they did in the other ; and the mischief, that followed to them and the common cause, might not have been prevented. This might have been the case, no doubt. They might have flattered themselves that they should be able to break into France, and to force PHILIP, by the distress brought on his grandfather, to resign the crown of Spain to the emperor, even after Great-Britain, and Portugal, and Savoy too perhaps, were drawn out of the war ; for these princes desired as little, as the queen, to see the Spanish crown on the emperor's head. But, even in this case, tho the madness would have been greater, the effect would not have



have been worse. The queen would have been able to serve these confederates as well by being mediator in the negotiations, as they left it in her power to do, by being a party in them : and Great-Britain would have had the advantage of being delivered so much sooner from a burden, which whimsical and wicked politics had imposed, and continued upon her, till it was become intolerable. Of these two measures, at the time when we might have taken either, there were persons who thought the last preferable to the former. But it never came into public debate. Indeed it never could ; too much time having been lost in waiting for the option of PHILIP, and the suspension and cessation having been brought before the council rather as a measure taken, than a matter to be debated. If your lordship, or any one else, should judge, that in such circumstances as those of the confederacy in the beginning of one thousand seven hundred and twelve, the latter measure ought to have been taken, and the Gordian knot to have been cut, rather than to suffer a mock treaty to languish on, with so much advantage to the French as the disunion of the allies gave them ; in short, if slowness, perplexity, inconsistency, and indecision should be objected, in some instances, to the queen's councils at that time ; if it should be said particularly, that she did not observe the precise moment when the conduct of the league formed against her, being exposed to mankind, would have justified any part she should have taken (tho she declared, soon after the moment was passed, that this conduct had set her free from all her engagements) and when she ought to have taken that of drawing, by one bold measure, her allies out of the war, or herself out of the confederacy, before she lost her influence on France : if all this should be objected, yet would the proofs brought to support these objections shew, that we were better allies than politicians ; that the desire the Queen had to treat in concert with her confederates, and the resolution she took not to sign without them, made her bear what no crowned head had ever borne before ; and that where she erred, she erred principally by the patience, the compliance, and the condescension she exercised towards them, and towards her own subjects in league with them. Such objections as these may lye to the Queen's conduct, in the course of this great affair ; as well as objections of human infirmity to that of the persons employed by her in the transactions of it ; from which neither those who preceded, nor those who succeeded, have, I

presume,



presume, been free. But the principles on which they proceeded were honest, the means they used were lawful, and the event they proposed to bring about was just. Whereas the very foundation of all the opposition to the peace was laid in injustice and folly: for what could be more unjust, than the attempt of the Dutch and the Germans, to force the Queen to continue a war for their private interest and ambition, the disproportionate expence of which oppressed the commerce of her subjects, and loaded them with debts for ages yet to come? a war, the objects of which was so changed, that from the year one thousand seven hundred and eleven she made it not only without any engagement, but against her own, and the common interest? What could be more foolish; you will think that I soften the term too much, and you will be in the right to think so: what could be more foolish, than the attempt of a party in Britain, to protract a war so ruinous to their country, without any reason that they durst avow, except that of wreaking the resentments of Europe on France, and that of uniting the Imperial and Spanish crowns on an austrian head: one of which was to purchase revenge at a price too dear; and the other was to expose the liberties of Europe to new dangers, by the conclusion of a war which had been made to assert and secure them?

I HAVE dwelt the longer on the conduct of those who promoted, and of those who opposed, the negotiations of the peace made at Utrecht, and on the comparison of the measure pursued by the Queen with that which she might have pursued, because the great benefit we ought to reap from the study of history, cannot be reaped unless we accustom ourselves to compare the conduct of different governments, and different parties, in the same conjunctures, and to observe the measures they did pursue, and the measures they might have pursued, with the actual consequences that followed one, and the possible, or probable consequences, that might have followed the other. By this exercise of the mind, the study of history anticipates, as it were, experience, as I have observed in one of the first of these letters, and prepares us for action. If this consideration should not plead a sufficient excuse for my prolixity on this head, I have one more to add that may. A rage of warring possessed a party in our nation till the death of the late Queen: a rage of negotiating has possessed the same party of men,

ever

ever since. You have seen the consequences of one: you see actually those of the other. The rage of warring confirmed the beggary of our nation, which began as early as the revolution; but then it gave, in the last war, reputation to our arms, and our councils too. For tho' I think, and must always think, that the principle, on which we acted after departing from that laid down in the grand alliance of one thousand seven hundred and one, was wrong; yet must we confess that it was pursued wisely, as well as boldly. The rage of negotiating has been a chargeable rage likewise, at least as chargeable in its proportion. Far from paying our debts, contracted in war, they continue much the same, after three and twenty years of peace. The taxes that oppress our mercantile interest the most are still in mortgage; and those that oppress the landed interest the most, instead of being laid on extraordinary occasions, are become the ordinary funds for the current service of every year. This is grievous, and the more so to any man, who has the honour of his country, as well as her prosperity at heart, because we have not, in this case, the airy consolation we had in the other. The rage of negotiating began twenty years ago, under pretence of consummating the treaty of Utrecht: and from that time to this, our ministers have been in one perpetual maze. They have made themselves and us, often, objects of aversion to the powers on the continent: and we are become at last objects of contempt, even to the Spaniards. What other effect could our absurd conduct have? What other return has it deserved? We came exhausted out of long wars; and, instead of pursuing the measures necessary to give us means and opportunity to repair our strength and to diminish our burdens, our ministers have acted, from that time to this, like men who sought pretences to keep the nation in the same exhausted condition, and under the same load of debt. This may have been their view perhaps; and we could not be surprised if we heard the same men declare national poverty necessary to support the present government, who have so frequently declared corruption and a standing army to be so. Your good sense, my lord, your virtue, and your love of your country, will always determine you to oppose such vile schemes, and to contribute your utmost towards the cure of both these kinds of rage; the rage of warring without any proportionable interest of our own, for the ambition of others; and the rage of negotiating, on every occasion, at any rate with-

without a sufficient call to it, and without any part of that deciding influence which we ought to have. Our nation inhabits an island, and is one of the principal nations of Europe; but, to maintain this rank, we must take the advantages of this situation, which have been neglected by us for almost half a century: we must always remember, that we are not part of the continent, but we must never forget that we are neighbours to it. I will conclude, by applying a rule that HORACE gives for the conduct of an epic or dramatic poem, to the part Great Britain ought to take in the affairs of the continent, if you allow me to transform Britannia into a male divinity, as the verse requires.

*Nec Deus interfit, nisi dignus vindice nodus Inciderit.*

If these reflections are just, and I should not have offered them to your lordship had they not appeared both just and important to my best understanding, you will think that I have not spent your time unprofitably in making them, and exciting you by them to examine the true interest of your country relatively to foreign affairs; and to compare it with those principles of conduct, that, I am persuaded, have no other foundation than party-designs, prejudices, and habits; the private interest of some men, and the ignorance and rashness of others.

My letter is grown so long, that I shall say nothing to your lordship at this time concerning the study of modern history, relatively to the interests of your country in domestic affairs; and I think there will be no need to do so at any other. The History of the rebellion by your great grandfather, and his private memorials, which your lordship has in manuscript, will guide you surely as far as they go: where they leave you, your lordship must not expect any history; for we have more reason to make this complaint, "*abest enim historia litteris nostris*," than TULLY had to put it into the mouth of ATTICUS in his first book *Of laws*. But where history leaves you, it is wanted least: the traditions of this century, and of the latter end of the last, are fresh. Many, who were actors in some of these events, are alive; and many who have conversed with those that were actors in others. The public is in possession of several collections and memorials, and several there are in private hands. You will want no materials to form true notions of transactions so recent. Even pamphlets, writ on different sides, and on dif-



ferent occasions in our party disputes, and histories of no more authority than pamphlets, will help you to come at truth. Read them with suspicion, my lord, for they deserve to be suspected: pay no regard to the epithets given, nor to the judgments passed; neglect all declamation, weigh the reasoning, and advert to fact. With such precautions, even BURNET's history may be of some use. In a word, your lordship will want no help of mine to discover, by what progression the whole constitution of our country, and even the character of our nation, has been altered: nor how much a worse use, in a national sense, tho a better in the sense of party politics, the men called Whigs have made of long wars and new systems of revenue, since the revolution; than the men called Tories made before it, of long peace, and stale prerogative. When you look back three or four generations ago, you will see that the English were a plain, perhaps a rough, but a good-natured hospitable people, jealous of their liberties, and able as well as ready to defend them, with their tongues, their pens, and their swords. The restoration began to turn hospitality into luxury, pleasure into debauch, and country peers and country commoners into courtiers and men of mode. But whilst our luxury was young, it was little more than elegance: the debauch of that age was enlivened with wit, and varnished over with gallantry. The courtiers, and the men of mode, knew what the constitution was, respected it, and often asserted it. Arts and sciences flourished, and, if we grew more trivial, we were not become either grossly ignorant, or openly profligate. Since the revolution, our kings have been reduced indeed to a seeming annual dependance on parliament; but the business of parliament, which was esteemed in general a duty before, has been exercised in general as a trade since. The trade of parliament, and the trade of funds, have grown universal. Men, who stood forward in the world, have attended to little else. The frequency of parliaments, that increased their importance, and should have increased the respect for them, has taken off from their dignity: and the spirit that prevailed, whilst the service in them was duty, has been debased since it became a trade. Few know, and scarce any respect, the British constitution: that of the Church has been long since derided; that of the State as long neglected; and both have been left at the mercy of the men in power, whoever those men were. Thus the Church, at least the hierarchy, however sacred in its origin or wise in its institution, is become an  
useless



useless burden on the State: and the State is become, under ancient and known forms, a new and undefinable monster; composed of a king without monarchical splendor, a senate of nobles without aristocratical independency, and a senate of commons without democratical freedom. In the mean time, my lord, the very idea of wit, and all that can be called taste, has been lost among the great; arts and sciences are scarce alive; luxury has been increased, but not refined; corruption has been established, and is avowed. When governments are worn out, thus it is: the decay appears in every instance. Public and private virtue, public and private spirit, science, and wit, decline altogether.

THAT you, my lord, may have a long and glorious share in restoring all these, and in drawing our government back to the true principles of it, I wish most heartily. Whatever errors I may have committed in public life, I have always loved my country: whatever faults may be objected to me in private life, I have always loved my friend: whatever usage I have received from my country, it shall never make me break with her: whatever usage I have received from my friends, I never shall break with one of them, while I think him a friend to my country. These are the sentiments of my heart. I know they are those of your lordship's: and a communion of such sentiments is a tie that will engage me to be, as long as I live,

My lord,

Your most faithful servant.

## A P L A N

F O R A

## General History of Europe.

## L E T T E R I.

**I** SHALL take the liberty of writing to you a little oftener than the three or four times a year, which you tell me, are all you can allow yourself to write to those you like best: and yet I declare to you with great truth, that you never knew me so busy in your life, as I am at present. You must not imagine from hence, that I am writing memoirs of myself. The subject is too slight to descend to posterity, in any other manner, than by that occasional mention which may be made of any little actor in the history of our age. SYLLA, CÆSAR, and others of that rank, were, whilst they lived, at the head of mankind: their story was in some sort the story of the world, and as such might very properly be transmitted under their names to future generations. But for those who have acted much inferior parts, if they publish the piece, and call it after their own names, they are impertinent; if they publish only their own share in it, they inform mankind by halves, and neither give much instruction, nor create much attention. France abounds with writers of this sort, and, I think, we fall into the other extreme. Let me tell you, on this occasion, what has sometimes come into my thoughts.

THERE is hardly any century in history which began by opening so great a scene, as the century wherein we live, and shall, I suppose, die. Compare it with others, even the most famous, and you will think so. I will sketch the two last, to help your memory.

THE loss of that balance which LAURENCE of Medicis had preserved, during his time, in Italy; the expedition of

CHARLES

CHARLES the eighth to Naples; the intrigues of the duke of MILAN, who spun, with all the refinements, of art, that net wherein he was taken at last himself; the successful dexterity of FERDINAND the Catholic, who built one pillar of the Austrain greatness in Spain, in Italy, and in the Indies; as the succession of the house of Burgundy, joined to the imperial dignity and the hereditary countries, established another in the upper and lower Germany: these causes, and many others, combined to form a very extraordinary conjuncture; and, by their consequences, to render the sixteenth century fruitful of great events, and of astonishing revolutions.

THE beginning of the seventeenth opened still a greater and more important scene. The Spanish yoke was well-nigh imposed on Italy by the famous triumvirate, TOLEDO at Milan, OSSUNA at Naples, and LA CUEVA at Venice. The distractions of France, as well as the state-policy of the queen mother, seduced by Rome, and amused by Spain; the despicable character of our JAMES the first, the rashness of the elector Palatine, the bad intelligence of the princes and states of the league in Germany, the mercenary temper of JOHN GEORGE of Saxony, and the great qualities of MAXIMILIAN of Bavaria, raised FERDINAND the second to the imperial throne; when, the males of the elder branch of the Austrain family in Germany being extinguished at the death of MATTHIAS, nothing was more desirable, nor perhaps more practicable, than to throw the empire into another house. Germany ran the same risque as Italy had done: FERDINAND seemed more likely even than CHARLES the fifth had been, to become absolute master; and, if France had not furnished the greatest minister, and the North the greatest captain of that age, in the same point of time, Vienna and Madrid would have given the law to the western world.

As the Austrain scale sunk, that of Bourbon rose. The true date of the rise of that power, which has made the kings of France so considerable in Europe, goes up as high as CHARLES the seventh, and LEWIS the eleventh. The weakness of our HENRY the sixth, the loose conduct of EDWARD the fourth, and perhaps the oversights of HENRY the seventh, helped very much to knit that monarchy together, as well as to enlarge it. Advantage might have been taken of the divisions which religion occasioned; and supporting the protestant party in France would have kept that crown under restraints, and under inabilities, in some measure equal to those which were occasioned anciently by the vast

*Richardson  
& Guistard  
1718*



alienations of it's demefnes, and by the exorbitant power of it's vassals. But JAMES the first was incapable of thinking with sense, or acting with spirit. CHARLES the first had an imperfect glimpse of his true interest, but his uxorious temper, and the extravagancy of that madman BUCKINGHAM, gave RICHELIEU time to finish a great part of his project: and the miseries, that followed in England, gave MAZARIN time and opportunity to complete the system. The last great act of this cardinal's administration was the Pyrenean treaty.

HERE I would begin, by representing the face of Europe such as it was at that epocha, the interests and the conduct of England, France, Spain, Holland, and the Empire. A summary recapitulation should follow of all the steps taken by France, during more than twenty years, to arrive at the great object she had proposed to herself in making this treaty: the most solemn article of which the minister, who negotiated it, designed should be violated; as appears by his letters, writ from the Island of Pheasants, if I mistake not. After this, another draught of Europe should have it's place, according to the relations, which the several powers stood in, one towards another, in one thousand six hundred and eighty eight: and the alterations which the revolution in England made in the politics of Europe. A summary account should follow of the events of the war that ended in one thousand six hundred and ninety seven, with the different views of king WILLIAM the third, and LEWIS the fourteenth, in making the peace of Ryswic; which matter has been much canvassed, and is little understood. Then the dispositions made by the partition-treaties, and the influences and consequences of these treaties; and a third draught of the state of Europe at the death of CHARLES the second of Spain. All this would make the subject of one or two books, and would be the most proper introduction imaginable to an history of that war with which our century began, and of the peace which followed.

THIS war, foreseen for above half a century, had been, during all that time, the great and constant object of the councils of Europe. The prize to be contended for was the richest, that ever had been staked, since those of the Persian and Roman empires. The union of two powers, which separately, and in opposition, had aimed at universal monarchy, was apprehended. The confederates therefore engaged in it, to maintain a balance between the two houses of Austria and Bourbon, in order to preserve their security, and to assert their independance. But with the success of the war they chang-  
ed

ed their views: and, if ambition began it on the side of France, ambition continued it on the other. The battles, the sieges, the surprising revolutions, which happened in the course of this war, are not to be paralleled in any period of the same compass. The motives, and the measures, by which it was protracted, the true reasons why it ended in a manner, which appeared not proportionable to it's success; and the new political state, into which Europe was thrown by the treaties of Utrecht and Baden, are subjects on which few persons have the necessary informations, and yet every one speaks with assurance, and even with passion. I think I could speak on them with some knowledge, and with as much indifference as POLYBIUS does of the negotiations of his father LYCORTAS, even in those points where I was myself an actor.

I WILL even confess to you, that I should not despair of performing this part better than the former. There is nothing in my opinion so hard to execute, as those political maps, if you will allow me such an expression, and those systems of hints, rather than relations of events, which are necessary to connect and explain them; and which must be so concise, and yet so full; so complicate, and yet so clear. I know nothing of this sort well done by the ancients. SALLUST's introduction, as well as that of THUCYDIDES, might serve almost for any other piece of the Roman or Greek story, as well as for those, which these two great authors chose. POLYBIUS does not come up, in his introduction, to this idea neither. Among the moderns, the first book of MACHIAVEL's History of Florence is a noble original of this kind: and perhaps father PAUL's History of Benefices is, in the same kind of composition, inimitable.

THESE are a few of those thoughts, which come into my mind when I consider how incumbent it is on every man, that he should be able to give an account even of his leisure; and, in the midst of solitude, be of some use to society.

I KNOW not whether I shall have courage enough to undertake the task I have chalked out: I distrust my abilities with reason, and I shall want several informations, not easy, I doubt, for me to obtain. But, in all events, it will not be possible for me to go about it this year; the reasons of which would be long enough to fill another letter, and I doubt that you will think this grown too bulky already.

Adieu.

OF THE  
T R U E U S E  
O F  
Retirement and Study.

To the Right Honourable  
Lord BATHURST.

L E T T E R II.

**S**INCE my last to your lordship, this is the first favourable opportunity I have had of keeping the promise I made you. I will avoid prolixity, as much as I can, in a first draught of my thoughts; but I must give you them as they rise in my mind, without staying to marshal them in close order.

As proud as we are of human reason, nothing can be more absurd than the general system of human life, and human knowledge. This faculty of distinguishing true from false, right from wrong, and what is agreeable, from what is repugnant, to nature, either by one act, or by a longer process of intuition, has not been given with so sparing an hand, as many appearances would make us apt to believe. If it was cultivated, therefore, as early, and as carefully as it might be, and if the exercise of it was left generally as free as it ought to be, our common notions and opinions would be more consonant to truth than they are: and, truth being but one, they would be more uniform likewise.

**B**UT this rightful mistress of human life and knowledge, whose proper office it is to preside over both, and to direct us in the conduct of one and the pursuit of the other, becomes degraded in the intellectual œconomy. She is reduced to a mean and servile state, to the vile drudgery of conniving at principles, defending opinions, and confirming habits, that are

none



none of hers. They, who do her most honor, who consult her ofteneft, and obey her too very often, are ftill guilty of limiting her authority according to maxims, and rules, and fchemes, that chance, or ignorance, or intereft, firft devifed, and that cuftom fancies: cuftom, that refult of the paffions and prejudices of many, and of the defigns of a few: that ape of reafon, who ufurps her feat, exercifes her power, and is obeyed by mankind in her ftand. Men find it eafy, and government makes it profitable, to concur in eftablifhed fyftems of fpeculation, and practice: and the whole turn of education prepares them to live upon credit all their lives. Much pains are taken, and time beftowed, to teach us what to think, but little or none of either, to inftitute us how to think. The magazine of the memory is ftored and ftuffed betimes; but the conduct of the underftanding is all along neglected, and the free exercife of it is, in effect, forbid in all places, and in terms in fome.

THERE is a ftange diftruf of human reafon in every human inftitution: this diftruf is fo apparent, that an habitual fubmiffion to fome authority, or other, is forming in us from our cradles; that principles of reafoning, and matters of fact, are inculcated in our tender minds, before we are able to exercife that reafon; and that, when we are able to exercife it, we are either forbid, or frightened from doing fo, even on things that are themfelves the proper objects of reafon, or that are delivered to us upon an authority whole fufficiency or infufficiency is fo moft evidently.

ON many fubjects, fuch as the general laws of natural religion, and the general rules of fociety and good policy, men of all countries and languages, who cultivate their reafon, judge alike. The fame premisses have led them to the fame conclufions, and fo, following the fame guide, they have trod in the fame path: at leaft, the differences are fmall, eafily reconciled, and fuch as could not, of themfelves, contradiftinguifh nation from nation, religion from religion, and feft from feft. How comes it then that there are other points, on which the moft oppofite opinions are entertained, and fome of thefe with fo much heat, and fury, that the men on one fide of the hedge will die for the affirmative, and the men on the other for the negative? “*Toute opinion eft aflez forte pour fe faire époufer au prix de la vie,*” fays MONTAIGNE, whom I often quote, as I do SENECA, rather for the fmartnefs of expreffion, than the weight of matter. Look narrowly into it, and you will find that the points agreed on and  
the



the points disputed, are not proportionable to the common sense and general reason of mankind. Nature and truth are the same every where, and reason shews them every where alike. But the accidental and other causes, which give rise and growth to opinions, both in speculation and practice, are of infinite variety; and where ever these opinions are once confirmed by custom and propagated by education, various, inconsistent, contradictory as they are, they all pretend (and all their pretences are backed by pride, by passion, and by interest) to have reason, or revelation, or both, on their side; tho neither reason nor revelation can be possibly on the side of more than one, and may be possibly on the side of none.

THUS it happens that the people of Tibet are Tartars and Idolaters, that they are Turks and Mahometans at Constantinople, Italians and Papists at Rome; and how much soever education may be less confined, and the means of knowledge more attainable, in France and our own country, yet thus it happens in great measure that Frenchmen and Roman Catholics are bred at Paris, and Englishmen and Protestants at London. For men, indeed, properly speaking, are bred no where: every one thinks the system, as he speaks the language of his country; at least there are few that think, and none that act, in any country, according to the dictates of pure unbiassed reason; unless they may be said to do so, when reason directs them to speak and act according to the system of their country, or sect, at the same time as she leads them to think according to that of nature and truth.

THUS the far greatest part of mankind appears reduced to a lower state than other animals, in that very respect, on account of which we claim so great a superiority over them; because instinct, that has its due effect, is preferable to reason that has not. I suppose in this place, with philosophers, and the vulgar, that which I am in no wise ready to affirm, that other animals have no share of human reason: for, let me say by the way, it is much more likely other animals should share the human, which is denied, than that man should share the divine reason, which is affirmed. But, supposing our monopoly of reason, would not your lordship chuse to walk upon four legs, to wear a long tail, and to be called a beast, with the advantage of being determined by irresistible and unerring instinct to those truths that are necessary to your well-being; rather than to walk on two legs, to wear no tail, and to be honored with the title of man, at the expence of deviating from them perpetually? Instinct  
acts

acts spontaneously whenever it's action is necessary, and directs the animal according to the purpose for which it was implanted in him. Reason is a nobler and more extensive faculty; for it extends to the unnecessary as well as necessary, and to satisfy our curiosity as well as our wants: but reason must be excited, or she will remain unactive; she must be left free, or she will conduct us wrong, and carry us farther astray from her own precincts than we should go without her help: in the first case, we have no sufficient guide; and in the second, the more we employ our reason, the more unreasonable we are.

Now if all this be so, if reason has so little, and ignorance, passion, interest, and custom so much to do in forming our opinions and our habits, and in directing the whole conduct of human life; is it not a thing desirable by every thinking man, to have the opportunity, indulged to so few by the course of accidents, the opportunity, *secum esse, et secum vivere,* of living some years at least to ourselves, and for ourselves, in a state of freedom, under the laws of reason, instead of passing our whole time in a state of vassalage under those of authority and custom? Is it not worth our while to contemplate ourselves, and others, and all the things of this world, once before we leave them, through the medium of pure, and, if I may say so, of undefiled reason? Is it not worth our while to approve or condemn, on our own authority, what we receive in the beginning of life on the authority of other men, who were not then better able to judge for us, than we are now to judge for ourselves?

THAT this may be done, and has been done to some degree, by men who remained much more mingled than I design to be for the future, in the company and business of the world, I shall not deny: but still it is better done in retreat and with greater ease and pleasure. Whilst we remain in the world, we are all fettered down, more or less, to one common level, and have neither all the leisure nor all the means and advantages, to soar above it, which we may procure to ourselves by breaking these fetters in retreat. To talk of abstracting ourselves from matter, laying aside body, and being resolved, as it were, into pure intellect, is proud, metaphysical, unmeaning jargon: but to abstract ourselves from the prejudices, and habits, and pleasures, and business of the world, is no more than many are, tho all are not, capable of doing. They who can do this, may elevate their souls in retreat to an higher station, and may take from thence such a view of  
the

the world, as the second *Scipio* took in his dream, from the seats of the blessed, when the whole earth appear'd so little to him, that he could scarce discern that speck of dirt, the Roman empire. Such a view as this will encrease our knowledge by shewing us our ignorance; will distinguish every degree of probability from the lowest to the highest, and mark the distance between that and certainty; will dispel the intoxicating fumes of philosophical presumption, and teach us to establish our peace of mind, where alone it can rest securely, in resignation: in short such a view will render life more agreeable, and death less terrible. Is not this business, my lord? Is not this pleasure too, the highest pleasure? The world can afford us none such; we must retire from the world to taste it with a full gust; but we shall taste it the better for having been in the world. The share of sensual pleasures, that a man of my age can promise himself, is hardly worth attention: he should be sated, he will be soon disabled; and very little reflection surely will suffice, to make his habits of this kind lose their power over him, in proportion at least as his power of indulging them diminishes. Besides, your lordship knows that my scheme of retirement excludes none of these pleasures that can be taken with decency and conveniency; and to say the truth, I believe that I allow myself more in speculation, than I shall find I want in practice. As to the habits of business, they can have no hold on one who has been so long tired with it. You may object, that tho a man has discarded these habits, and has not even the embers of ambition about him to revive them, yet he cannot renounce all public business as absolutely as I seem to do; because a better principle, a principle of duty, may summon him to the service of his country. I will answer you with great sincerity. No man has higher notions of this duty than I have. I think that scarce any age, or circumstances, can discharge us entirely from it; no, not my own. But as we are apt to take the impulse of our own passions, for a call to the performance of this duty; so when these passions impel us no longer, the call that puts us upon action must be real, and loud too. Add to this, that there are different methods proportioned to different circumstances and situations, of performing the same duty. In the midst of retreat, where ever it may be fixed, I may contribute to defend and preserve the British constitution of government: and you, my lord, may depend upon me, that whenever I can, I will. Should any one ask you, in this case, from whom I expect my reward?

Answer



Answer him by declaring to whom I pay this service; "Deo  
" immortal, qui me non accipere modo haec a majoribus  
" voluit, sed etiam posteris proderet."

BUT, to lead the life I propose with satisfaction and profit, renouncing the pleasures and business of the world, and breaking the habits of both, is not sufficient: the supine creature whose understanding is superficially employed, through life, about a few general notions, and is never bent to a close and steady pursuit of truth, may renounce the pleasures and business of the world, for even in the business of the world we see such creatures often employed, and may break the habits; nay he may retire and drone away life in solitude, like a monk, or like him over the door of whose house, as if his house had been his tomb, somebody writ, "Here lives  
" such an one." But no such man will be able to make the true use of retirement. The employment of his mind, that would have been agreeable and easy if he had accustomed himself to it early, will be unpleasant and impracticable late: such men lose their intellectual powers for want of exerting them, and, having trifled away youth, are reduced to the necessity of trifling away age. It fares with the mind just as it does with the body. He who was born, with a texture of brain as strong as that of NEWTON, may become unable to perform the common rules of arithmetic: just as he who has the same elasticity in his muscles, the same suppleness in his joints, and all his nerves and sinews as well braced as JACOB HALL, may become a fat unwieldy sluggard. Yet farther, the implicit creature, who has thought it all his life needless, or unlawful, to examine the principles or facts that he took originally on trust, will be as little able as the other, to improve his solitude to any good purpose: Unless we call it a good purpose, for that sometimes happens, to confirm and exalt his prejudices, so that he may live and die in one continued delirium. The confirmed prejudices of a thoughtful life are as hard to change as the confirmed habits of an indolent life: and as some must trifle away age because they have trifled away youth, others must labour on in a maze of error, because they have wandered there too long to find their way out.

THERE is a prejudice in China in favour of little feet, and therefore the feet of girls are swathed and bound up from the cradle, so that the women of that country are unable to walk without tottering and stumbling all their lives. Among the savages of America, there are some who hold flat heads and  
long



long ears in great esteem, and therefore press the one, and draw down the others so hard from their infancy, that they destroy irrecoverably the true proportions of nature, and continue all their lives ridiculous to every sight but their own. Just so, the first of these characters cannot make any progress, and the second will not attempt to make any, in an impartial search after real knowledge.

To set about acquiring the habits of meditation and study late in life, is like getting into a go-cart with a grey beard, and learning to walk when we have lost the use of our legs. In general, the foundations of an happy old age must be laid in youth: and in particular, he who has not cultivated his reason young, will be utterly unable to improve it old.

“*Manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneant studium & industria.*”

Not only a love of study, and a desire of knowledge, must have grown up with us, but such an industrious application likewise, as requires the whole vigour of the mind to be exerted in the pursuit of truth, through long trains of ideas, and all those dark recesses wherein man, not God, has hid it.

THIS love and this desire I have felt all my life, and I am not quite a stranger to this industry and application. There has been something always ready to whisper in my ear, whilst I ran the course of pleasure and of business, “*Solve senescens centem mature sanus equum.*”

BUT my Genius, unlike the demon of SOCRATES, whispered so softly, that very often I heard him not, in the hurry of those passions by which I was transported. Some calmer hours there were: in them I hearkened to him. Reflection had often it's turn, and the love of study and the desire of knowledge have never quite abandoned me. I am not therefore entirely unprepared for the life I will lead, and it is not without reason that I promise myself more satisfaction in the latter part of it, than I ever knew in the former.

YOUR lordship may think this perhaps a little too sanguine, for one who has lost so much time already: you may put me in mind, that human life has no second spring, no second summer: you may ask me what I mean by sowing in autumn, and whether I hope to reap in winter? My answer will be, that I think very differently from most men, of the time we have to pass, and the business we have to do in this world. I think we have more of one, and less of the other, than is commonly

commonly supposed. Our want of time, and the shortness of human life, are some of the principal common-place complaints, which we prefer against the established order of things: they are the grumblings of the vulgar, and the pathetic lamentations of the philosopher; but they are impertinent and impious in both. The man of business despises the man of pleasure, for squandering his time away; the man of pleasure pities or laughs at the man of business, for the same thing: and yet both concur superciliously and absurdly to find fault with the Supreme Being, for having given them so little time. The philosopher, who mispends it very often as much as the others, joins in the same cry, and authorises this impiety. THEOPHRASTUS thought it extremely hard to die at ninety, and to go out of the world when he had just learned how to live in it. His master ARISTOTLE found fault with nature, for treating man in this respect worse than several other animals: both very unphilosophically! and I love SENECA the better for his quarrel with the Stagirite on this head. We see, in so many instances, a just proportion of things, according to their several relations to one another; that philosophy should lead us to conclude this proportion preserved, even where we cannot discern it; instead of leading us to conclude that it is not preserved where we do not discern it; or where we think that we see the contrary. To conclude otherwise, is shocking presumption. It is to presume that the system of the universe would have been more wisely contrived, if creatures of our low rank among intellectual natures had been called to the councils of the Most High; or that the Creator ought to mend his work by the advice of the creature. That life which seems to our self-love so short, when we compare it with the ideas we frame of eternity, or even with the duration of some other beings, will appear sufficient, upon a less partial view, to all the ends of our creation, and of a just proportion in the successive course of generations. The term itself is long: we render it short; and the want we complain of flows from our profusion, not from our poverty. We are all arrant spend-thrifts; some of us dissipate our estates on the trifles, some on the superfluities, and then we all complain that we want the necessaries, of life. The much greatest part never reclaim, but die bankrupts to God and man. Others reclaim late, and they are apt to imagine, when they make up their accounts and see how their fund is diminished, that they have not enough remaining to live upon, because they have not  
the

*Aristotle  
born in  
Stagira in  
Macedonia*

the whole. But they deceive themselves; they were richer than they thought, and they are not yet poor. If they husband well the remainder, it will be found sufficient for all the necessaries, and for some of the superfluities, and trifles too perhaps, of life: but then the former order of expence must be inverted; and the necessaries of life must be provided, before they put themselves to any cost for the trifles or superfluities.

LET us leave the men of pleasure and of business, who are often candid enough to own that they throw away their time, and thereby to confess that they complain of the Supreme Being for no other reason than this, that he has not proportioned his bounty to their extravagance: let us consider, the scholar and the philosopher; who, far from owning that he throws any time away, reproves others for doing it: that solemn mortal who abstains from the pleasures, and declines the business of the world, that he may dedicate his whole time to the search of truth, and the improvement of knowledge. When such an one complains of the shortness of human life in general, or of his remaining share in particular; might not a man, more reasonable tho less solemn, expostulate thus with him?

‘ YOUR complaint is indeed consistent with your practice; but you would not, possibly, renew your complaint if you reviewed your practice. Tho reading makes a scholar, yet every scholar is not a philosopher, nor every philosopher a wise man. It cost you twenty years to devour all the volumes on one side of your library: you came out a great critic in Latin and Greek, in the Oriental tongues, in history, and chronology; but you was not satisfied: you confessed that these were the “*literæ nihil fanantes*,” and you wanted more time to acquire other knowledge. You have had this time: you have passed twenty years more on the other side of your library, among philosophers, rabies, commentators, schoolmen, and whole legions of modern doctors. You are extremely well versed in all that has been written concerning the nature of God, and of the soul of man; about matter and form, body and spirit; and space, and eternal essences, and incorporeal substances; and the rest of those profound speculations. You are a master of the controversies that have arisen about nature and grace, about predestination and free-will, and all the other abstruse questions that have made so much noise in the schools, and done so much hurt in the world. You are going



' going on, as fast as the infirmities, you have contracted  
 ' will permit, in the same course of study; but you begin to  
 ' foresee that you shall want time, and you make grievous  
 ' complaints of the shortness of human life. Give me leave  
 ' now to ask you, how many thousand years God must pro-  
 ' long your life, in order to reconcile you to his wisdom  
 ' and goodness? It is plain, at least highly probable, that a life  
 ' as long as that of the most aged of the patriarchs, would be  
 ' too short to answer your purposes; since the researches and  
 ' disputes in which you are engaged, have been already for  
 ' a much longer time the objects of learned inquiries, and  
 ' remain still as imperfect and undetermined as they were at  
 ' first. But let me ask you again, and deceive neither your-  
 ' self nor me; have you, in the course of these forty years,  
 ' once examined the first principles, and the fundamental  
 ' facts, on which all those questions depend, with an abso-  
 ' lute indifference of judgment, and with a scrupulous ex-  
 ' actness? with the same that you have employed in examin-  
 ' ing the various consequences drawn from them, and the  
 ' heterodox opinions about them? Have you not taken  
 ' them for granted, in the whole course of your studies?  
 ' Or, if you have looked now and then on the state of the  
 ' proofs brought to maintain them, have you not done it as  
 ' a mathematician looks over a demonstration formerly made,  
 ' to refresh his memory, not to satisfy any doubt? If you  
 ' have thus examined, it may appear marvellous to some,  
 ' that you have spent so much time in many parts of those  
 ' studies, which have reduced you to this hectic condition,  
 ' of so much heat and weakness. But if you have not thus  
 ' examined, it must be evident to all, nay, to yourself on the  
 ' least cool reflection, that you are still, notwithstanding all  
 ' your learning, in a state of ignorance. For knowledge  
 ' can alone produce knowledge: and without such an exa-  
 ' mination of axioms and facts, you can have none about  
 ' inferences."

IN this manner one might expostulate very reasonably  
 with many a great scholar, many a profound philosopher,  
 many a dogmatical casuist. And it serves to set the com-  
 plaints about want of time, and the shortness of human life,  
 in a very ridiculous but a true light. All men are taught  
 their opinions, at least on the most important subjects, by  
 rote; and are bred to defend them with obstinacy. They  
 may be taught true opinions; but whether true or false, the  
 same zeal for them, and the same attachment to them, is



every where inspired alike. The Tartar believes as heartily that the soul of *FOR* inhabits in his *DAIRO*, as the Christian believes the hypostatic union, or any article in the Athanasian creed. Now this may answer the ends of society in some respects, and do well enough for the vulgar of all ranks: but it is not enough for the man who cultivates his reason, who is able to think, and who ought to think, for himself. To such a man, every opinion that he has not himself either framed, or examined strictly and then adopted, will pass for nothing more than what it really is, the opinion of other men; which may be true or false for aught he knows. And this is a state of uncertainty, in which no such man can remain, with any peace of mind, concerning those things that are of greatest importance to us here, and may be so hereafter. He will make them therefore the objects of his first and greatest attention. If he has lost time, he will lose no more; and when he has acquired all the knowledge he is capable of acquiring on these subjects, he will be the less concerned whether he has time to acquire any farther. Should he have passed his life in the pleasures or business of the world; whenever he sets about this work, he will soon have the advantage over the learned philosopher. For he will soon have secured what is necessary to his happiness, and may sit down in the peaceful enjoyment of that knowledge; or proceed with greater advantage and satisfaction to the acquisition of new knowledge; whilst the other continues his search after things that are in their nature, to say the best of them, hypothetical, precarious, and superfluous.

BUT this is not the only rule, by observing of which we may redeem our time, and have the advantage over those who imagine they have so much in point of knowledge over your lordship or me, for instance, and who despise our ignorance. The rule I mean is this; to be on our guard against the common arts of delusion, spoken of already; which, every one is ready to confess, have been employed to mislead those who differ from him. Let us be diffident of ourselves, but let us be diffident of others too: our own passions may lead us to reason wrong; but the passions and interest of others may have the same effect. It is in every man's power, who sets about it in good earnest, to prevent the first: and when he has done so, he will have a conscious certainty of it. To prevent the last, there is one, and but one sure method; and that is, to remount, in the survey of our opinions, to the first and even-remotest principles on which they are founded. No respect,

respect, no habit, no seeming certainty whatever, must divert us from this: any affectation of diverting us from it ought to increase our suspicion: and the more important our examination is, the more important this method of conducting it becomes. Let us not be frightened from it, either by the supposed difficulty or length of such an inquiry; for, on the contrary, this is the easiest and the shortest, as well as the only sure way of arriving at real knowledge; and of being able to place the opinions we examine in the different classes of true, probable, or false, according to the truth, probability, or falshood of the principles from whence they are deduced. If we find these principles false, and that will be the case in many instances, we stop our inquiries on these heads at once; and save an immense deal of time that we should otherwise mispend. The Mussulman who enters on the examination of all the disputes that have arisen between the followers of OMAR and ALI and other doctors of his law, must acquire a thorough knowledge of the whole Mahometan system; and will have as good a right to complain of want of time, and the shortness of human life, as any pagan or Christian divine or philosopher: but without all this time and learning, he might have discovered that MAHOMET was an impostor, and that the Koran is an heap of absurdities.

IN short, my lord, he who retires from the world, with a resolution of employing his leisure, in the first place to re-examine and settle his opinions, is inexcusable if he does not begin with those that are most important to him, and if he does not deal honestly by himself. To deal honestly by himself, he must observe the rule I have insisted upon, and not suffer the delusions of the world to follow him into his retreat. Every man's reason is every man's oracle: this oracle is best consulted in the silence of retirement; and when we have so consulted, whatever the decision be, whether in favour of our prejudices or against them, we must rest satisfied: since nothing can be more certain than this, that he who follows that guide in the search of truth, as that was given him to lead him to it, will have a much better plea to make, whenever or wherever he may be called to account, than he, who has resigned himself, either deliberately or inadvertently, to any authority upon earth.

WHEN we have done this, concerning God, ourselves, and other men; concerning the relations in which we stand to him and to them; the duties that result from these relations, and the positive will of the Supreme Being, whether revealed to

us in a supernatural, or discovered by the right use of our reason in a natural way—we have done the great business of our lives. Our lives are so sufficient for this, that they afford us time for more, even when we begin late: especially if we proceed in every other inquiry by the same rule. To discover error in axioms, or in first principles grounded on facts, is like the breaking of a charm. The enchanted castle, the steepy rock, the burning lake disappear: and the paths that lead to truth, which we imagined to be so long, so embarrassed, and so difficult, shew as they are, short, open, and easy. When we have secured the necessities, there may be time to amuse ourselves with the superfluities, and even with the trifles, of life. “*Dulce est desipere*,” said HORACE: “*Vive la bagatelle!*” says SWIFT. I oppose neither; not the Epicurean, much less the Christian philosopher: but I insist that a principal part of these amusements be the amusements of study and reflection, of reading and conversation. You know what conversation I mean; for we lose the true advantage of our nature and constitution, if we suffer the mind to come, as it were, to a stand. When the body, instead of acquiring new vigour, and tasting new pleasures, begins to decline, and is sated with pleasures or grown incapable of taking them, the mind may continue still to improve and indulge itself in new enjoyments. Every advance in knowledge opens a new scene of delight; and the joy that we feel in the actual possession of one, will be heightened by that which we expect to find in another: so that, before we can exhaust this fund of successive pleasures, death will come to end our pleasures and our pains at once. “*In his studiis laboribusque viventi, non intelligitur quando obrepit senectus: ita sensim sine sensu ætas senescit, nec subito frangitur, sed diuturnitate extinguitur.*”

THIS, my lord, is the wisest, and the most agreeable manner in which a man of sense can wind up the thread of life. Happy is he whose situation and circumstances give him the opportunity and means of doing it! Tho he should not have made any great advances in knowledge, and should set about it late, yet the task will not be found difficult, unless he has gone too far out of his way; and unless he continues too long to halt, between the dissipations of the world, and the leisure of a retired life.

—Vivendi recte qui prorogat horam,  
Rusticus expectat dum desluat annis,——

You



You know the rest. I am sensible, more sensible than any enemy I have, of my natural infirmities, and acquired disadvantages: but I have begun, and I will persist; for he who jogs forward on a battered horse, in the right way, may get to the end of his journey; which he cannot do, who gallops the fleetest courser of New-Market out of it.

ADIEU, my dear lord. Tho I have much more to say on this subject, yet I perceive, and I doubt you have long perceived, that I have said too much, at least for a letter, already. The rest shall be reserved for conversation whenever we meet: and then I hope to confirm, under your lordship's eye, my speculations by my practice. In the mean time let me refer you to our friend POPE. He says I made a philosopher of him: I am sure he has contributed very much, and I thank him for it, to the making an hermit of me.

## ADVERTISEMENT.

**T**HAT the public may not be imposed upon by any lame and unequal translation, of the following treatise, from the French, in which language part of it has been lately printed, and retailed in a monthly Mercury; it is judged proper to add it here, at the end of this second volume, from the authors's original manuscript, as he himself had finished it for the press.

## REFLECTIONS

UPON

## EXILE\*.

MDCCXVI.

**D**ISSIPATION of mind, and length of time, are the remedies to which the greatest part of mankind trust in their afflictions. But the first of these works a temporary, the second a slow, effect: and both are unworthy of a wise man. Are we to fly from ourselves that we may fly from our misfortunes, and fondly to imagine that the disease is cured because we find means to get some moments of respite from pain? Or shall we expect from time, the physician of brutes, a lingering and uncertain deliverance? Shall we wait to be happy till we can forget that we are miserable, and owe to the weakness of our faculties a tranquillity which ought to be the effect of their strength? Far otherwise. Let us set all our past and our present afflictions at once before our eyes†. Let us resolve to overcome them, instead of flying from them, or wearing out the sense of them by long and ignominious patience. Instead of palliating remedies, let us use the incision-knife and the caustic, search the wound to the bottom, and work an immediate and radical cure.

THE recalling of former misfortunes serves to fortify the mind against later. He must blush to sink under the anguish of one wound, who surveys a body seamed over with the scars of many, and who has come victorious out of all the conflicts wherein he received them. Let sighs, and tears, and fainting under the lightest strokes of adverse fortune, be the portion of those unhappy people whose tender minds a long course of felicity has enervated: while such, as have

\* Several passages of this little treatise are taken from SENECA: and the whole is writ with some allusion to his stile and manner, "quanquam non omnino temere sit, quod de sententiis illius queritur  
"Fabius," &c. ERAS. De sen. jud.

† SEN. De con. ad Hel.

passed through years of calamity, bear up, with a noble and immoveable constancy, against the heaviest. Uninterrupted misery has this good effect, as it continually torments, it finally hardens.

SUCH is the language of philosophy: and happy is the man who acquires the right of holding it. But this right is not to be acquired by pathetic discourse. Our conduct can alone give it us: and therefore, instead of presuming on our strength, the surest method is to confess our weakness, and, without loss of time, to apply ourselves to the study of wisdom. This was the advice which the oracle gave to ZENO \*, and there is no other way of securing our tranquillity amidst all the accidents to which human life is exposed. Philosophy has, I know, her THRASOS, as well as War: and among her sons many there have been, who, while they aimed at being more than men, became something less. The means of preventing this danger are easy and sure. It is a good rule, to examine well before we addict ourselves to any sect: but I think it is a better rule, to addict ourselves to none. Let us hear them all, with a perfect indifferency on which side the truth lies: and, when we come to determine, let nothing appear so venerable to us as our own understandings. Let us gratefully accept the help of every one who has endeavoured to correct the vices, and strengthen the minds of men; but let us chuse for ourselves, and yield universal assent to none. Thus, that I may instance the sect already mentioned, when we have laid aside the wonderful and surprising sentences, and all the paradoxes of the Portic, we shall find in that school such doctrines as our unprejudiced reason submits to with pleasure, as nature dictates, and as experience confirms. Without this precaution, we run the risque of becoming imaginary kings, and real slaves. With it, we may learn to assert our native freedom, and live independent on fortune.

IN order to which great end, it is necessary that we stand watchful, as centinels, to discover the secret wiles and open attacks of this capricious goddess, before they reach us †. Where she falls upon us unexpected, it is hard to resist; but those who wait for her, will repel her with ease. The sudden invasion of an enemy overthrows such as are not on their guard; but they who foresee the war, and prepare themselves for it before it breaks out, stand without difficulty, the first and the fiercest onset. I learned this important lesson long ago,

\* DIOG. LAERT. † SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*



and never trusted to fortune even while she seemed to be at peace with me. The riches, the honors, the reputation, and all the advantages which her treacherous indulgence poured upon me, I placed so, that she might snatch them away without giving me any disturbance. I kept a great interval between me and them. She took them, but she could not tear them from me. No man suffers by bad fortune, but he who has been deceived by good. If we grow fond of her gifts, fancy that they belong to us, and are perpetually to remain with us, if we lean upon them, and expect to be considered for them; we shall sink into all the bitterness of grief, as soon as these false and transitory benefits pass away, as soon as our vain and childish minds, unfraught with solid pleasures, become destitute even of those which are imaginary. But, if we do not suffer ourselves to be transported by prosperity, neither shall we be reduced by adversity. Our souls will be of proof against the dangers of both these states: and, having explored our strength, we shall be sure of it; for in the midst of felicity, we shall have tried how we can bear misfortune.

It is much harder to examine and judge, than to take up opinions on trust; and therefore the far greatest part of the world borrow, from others, those which they entertain concerning all the affairs of life and death\*. Hence it proceeds that men are so unanimously eager in the pursuit of things, which, far from having any inherent real good, are varnished over with a specious and deceitful gloss, and contain nothing answerable to their appearances†. Hence it proceeds, on the other hand, that, in those things which are called evils, there is nothing so hard and terrible as the general cry of the world threatens. The word exile comes indeed harsh to the ear, and strikes us like a melancholy and execrable sound, through a certain persuasion which men have habitually concurred in. Thus the multitude has ordained. But the greatest part of their ordinances are abrogated by the wise.

REJECTING therefore the judgment of those who determine according to popular opinions, or the first appearances of things, let us examine what exile really is§. It is, then, a change of place; and, lest you should say that I diminish the object, and conceal the most shocking parts of it, I add,

\* *Dum unusquisque mavult credere, quam judicare, nunquam de vita judicatur, semper creditur.* SEN. *De vita beat.*

† SEN. *De con. ad Hel.* § SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*

that this change of place is frequently accompanied by some or all of the following inconveniencies : by the loss of the estate which we enjoyed, and the rank which we held ; by the loss of that consideration and power which we were in possession of ; by a separation from our family and our friends ; by the contempt which we may fall into ; by the ignominy with which those who have driven us abroad, will endeavour to sully the innocence of our characters, and to justify the injustice of their own conduct.

ALL these shall be spoke to hereafter. In the mean while, let us consider what evil there is, in change of place, abstractedly and by itself.

To live deprived of one's country is intolerable \*. Is it so ? How comes it then to pass, that such numbers of men live out of their countries by choice ? Observe how the streets of London and Paris are crowded. Call over those millions by name, and ask them one by one, of what country they are : how many will you find, who from different parts of the earth, come to inhabit these great cities, which afford the largest opportunities, and the largest encouragement, to virtue and to vice ? Some are drawn by ambition, and some are sent by duty ; many resort thither to improve their minds, and many to improve their fortunes ; others bring their beauty, and others their eloquence, to market. Remove from hence, and go to the utmost extremities of the East or the West : visit the barbarous nations of Africa, or the inhospitable regions of the North : you will find no climate so bad, no country so savage, as not to have some people who come from abroad and inhabit there by choice.

AMONG numberless extravagancies which have passed through the minds of men, we may justly reckon for one that notion of a secret affection, independent of our reason, and superior to our reason, which we are supposed to have for our country ; as if there were some physical virtue in every spot of ground, which necessarily produced this effect in every one born upon it.

“—Amor patriæ ratione valentior omni †.”

As if the *hiemvei* was an universal distemper, inseparable from the constitution of an human body, and not peculiar to the Swifs, who seem to have been made for their mountains, as

\* SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*

† OV. *De Ponto, El. iv.*

their mountains seem to have been made for them \*. This notion may have contributed to the security and grandeur of states. It has therefore been not unartfully cultivated, and the prejudice of education has been with care put on its side. Men have come in this case, as in many, from believing that it ought to be so, to persuade others, and even to believe themselves that it is so. PROCOPIUS relates that ABGARUS came to Rome, and gained the esteem and friendship of AUGUSTUS to such a degree, that this emperor could not resolve to let him return home: that ABGARUS brought several beasts, which he had taken one day in hunting, alive to AUGUSTUS: that he placed in different parts of the Circus some of the earth which belonged to the places where each of these animals had been caught: that as soon as this was done, and they were turned loose, every one of them ran to that corner where his earth lay: that AUGUSTUS, admiring their sentiment of love for their country which nature has graven in the hearts of beasts, and struck by the evidence of the truth, granted the request which ABGARUS immediately pressed upon him, and allowed, tho with regret, the tetrarch to return to Edeffa. But this tale deserves just as much credit as that which follows in the same place, of the letter of ABGARUS to JESUS CHRIST, of our Saviour's answer, and of the cure of ABGARUS. There is nothing, surely, more groundless than the notion here advanced, nothing more absurd. We love the country in which we are born, because we receive particular benefits from it, and because we have particular obligations to it: which ties we may have to another country, as well as to that we are born in; to our country by election, as well as to our country by birth. In all other respects, a wise man looks on himself as a citizen of the world: and, when you ask him where his country lies, points, like ANAXAGORAS, with his finger to the heavens.

THERE are other persons, again, who have imagined that as the whole universe suffers a continual rotation, and nature seems to delight in it, or to preserve herself by it, so there is in the minds of men a natural restlessness, which inclines them to change of place, and to the shifting their habitations †. This opinion has at least an appearance of truth, which the other wants; and is countenanced, as the other is contradicted, by experience. But, whatever the reasons be, which must

\* Card. BENTI. *Let.*

† SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*



have varied infinitely in an infinite number of cases, and an immense space of time; true it is in fact, that the families and nations of the world, have been in a continual fluctuation, roaming about on the face of the globe, driving and driven out by turns. What a number of colonies has Asia sent into Europe! The Phœnicians planted the coasts of the Mediterranean sea, and pushed their settlements even into the ocean. The Etrurians were of Asiatic extraction; and, to mention no more, the Romans, those lords of the world, acknowledged a Trojan exile for the founder of their empire. How many migrations have there been, in return to these, from Europe into Asia? They would be endless to enumerate; for, besides the *Æolic*, the *Ionic*, and others of almost equal fame, the Greeks, during several ages, made continual expeditions, and built cities in several parts of Asia. The Gauls penetrated thither too, and established a kingdom. The European Scythians over-ran these vast provinces, and carried their arms to the confines of Egypt. ALEXANDER subdued all from the Hellespont to India, and built towns, and established colonies, to secure his conquests, and to eternise his name. From both these parts of the world Africa has received inhabitants and masters; and what she has received she has given. The Tyrians built the city, and founded the republic of Carthage; and Greek has been the language of Egypt. In the remotest antiquity we hear of BELUS in Chaldæa, and of SESOSTRIS planting his tawny colonies in Colchos: and Spain has been, in these later ages, under the dominion of the Moors. If we turn to Runic history, we find our fathers, the Goths, led by WODEN and by THOR, their heroes first and their divinities afterwards, from the Asiatic Tartary into Europe: and who can assure us that this was their first migration? They came into Asia perhaps by the East, from that continent to which their sons have lately sailed from Europe by the West: and thus in the process of three or four thousand years, the same race of men have pushed their conquests and their habitations round the globe: at least this may be supposed, as reasonably as it is supposed, I think, by GROTIUS, that America was peopled from Scandinavia. The world is a great wilderness, wherein mankind have wandered and jostled one another about from the creation. Some have removed by necessity, and others by choice. One nation has been fond of seizing what another was tired of possessing: and it will be difficult to point out the country which is to this day in the hands of its first inhabitants.

THUS



THUS fate has ordained that nothing shall remain long in the same state : and what are all these transportations of people, but so many public Exiles ? VARRO, the most learned of the Romans, thought, since Nature \* is the same where ever we go, that this single circumstance was sufficient to remove all objections to change of place, taken by itself, and stripped of the other inconveniencies which attend Exile. M. BRUTUS thought it enough that those, who go into banishment, cannot be hindered from carrying their Virtue along with them. Now, if any one judge that each of these comforts is in itself sufficient, he must however confess that both of them, joined together, are able to remove the terrors of exile. For what trifles must all we leave behind us be esteemed, in comparison of the two most precious things which men can enjoy, and, which, we are sure, will follow us where ever we turn our steps, the same Nature, and our proper Virtue † ? Believe me, the providence of God has established such an order in the world, that of all which belongs to us the least valuable parts can alone fall under the will of others. Whatever is best is safest ; lies out of the reach of human power ; can neither be given nor taken away. Such is this great and beautiful work of nature, the world. Such is the mind of man, which contemplates and admires the world whereof it makes the noblest part. These are inseparably ours, and as long as we remain in one we shall enjoy the other. Let us march therefore intrepidly where ever we are led by the course of human accidents. Where ever they lead us, on what coast soever we are thrown by them, we shall not find ourselves absolutely strangers. We shall meet with men and women, creatures of the same figure, endowed with the same faculties, and born under the same laws of nature. We shall see the same virtues and vices, flowing from the same general principles, but varied in a thousand different and contrary modes, according to that infinite variety of laws and customs which is established for the same universal end, the preservation of society. We shall feel the same revolution of seasons, and the same sun and moon §

\* SEN. *De con. ad Hel.* † *Ib.*

§ PLUT. *Of banishment.* He compares those who cannot live out of their own country, to the simple people who fancied that the moon of Athens was a finer moon than that of Corinth.

—*labentem cælo quæ ducitis annum.*

VIR. *Geo.*  
will

will guide the course of our year. The same azure vault, bespangled with stars, will be every where spread over our heads. There is no part of the world from whence we may not admire those planets which roll, like ours, in different orbits round the same central sun; from whence we may not discover an object still more stupendous, that army of fixed stars hung up in the immense space of the universe, innumerable suns whose beams enlighten and cherish the unknown worlds which roll around them: and whilst I am ravished by such contemplations as these, whilst my soul is thus raised up to heaven, it imports me little what ground I tread upon.

BRUTUS\*, in the book which he writ on virtue, related that he had seen MARCELLUS in exile at Mytilene, living in all the happiness which human nature is capable of, and cultivating, with as much assiduity as ever, all kinds of laudable knowledge. He added that this spectacle made him think that it was rather he who went into banishment, since he was to return without the other, than the other who remained in it. O MARCELLUS, far more happy when BRUTUS approved thy exile, than when the commonwealth approved thy consulship! How great a man must thou have been, to extort admiration from him who appeared an object of admiration even to his own CATO! The same BRUTUS reported further that CÆSAR overshoot Mytilene, because he could not stand the sight of MARCELLUS reduced to a state so unworthy of him. His restoration was at length obtained by the public intercession of the whole senate, who were dejected with grief to such a degree, that they seemed all upon this occasion to have the same sentiments with BRUTUS, and to be suppliants for themselves, rather than for MARCELLUS †. This was to return with honor; but surely he remained abroad with greater, when BRUTUS could not resolve to leave him, nor CÆSAR to see him; for both of them bore witness of his merit. BRUTUS grieved, and CÆSAR blushed to go to Rome without him.

Q. METELLUS NUMIDICUS had undergone the same fate some years before, while the people, who are always the surest instruments of their own servitude, were laying, under

\* SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*

† MARCELLUS was assassinated at Athens, in his return home, by CHILO, an old friend, and fellow-soldier of his. The motive of CHILO, is not explained in history. CÆSAR was suspected, but he seems to be justified by the opinion of BRUTUS.

the conduct of MARIUS, the foundations of that tyranny which was perfected by CÆSAR. METELLUS alone, in the midst of an intimidated senate, and outrageous multitude, refused to swear to the pernicious laws of the tribune SATURNINUS. His constancy became his crime, and exile his punishment. A wild and lawless faction prevailing against him, the best men of the city armed in his defence, and were ready to lay down their lives that they might preserve so much virtue to their country. But he, having failed to persuade, thought it not lawful to constrain. He judged in the phrensy of the Roman commonwealth, as PLATO judged in the dotage of the Athenian. METELLUS knew, that if his fellow-citizens amended, he should be recalled; and if they did not amend, he thought he could be no where worse than at Rome. He went voluntarily into exile, and wherever he passed he carried the sure symptom of a sickly state, and the certain prognostic of an expiring commonwealth. What temper he continued in abroad will best appear by a fragment of one of his letters which GELLIUS\*, in a pedantic compilation of phrases used by the annalist Q. CLAUDIUS, has preserved for the sake of the word *Frunifcor*. “*Illi vero omni jure atque honestate interditi: ego neque aqua neque igne careo: et summa gloria frunifcor.*” Happy METELLUS! happy in the conscience of thy own virtue! happy in thy pious son, and in that excellent friend who resembled thee in merit and in fortune!

RUTILIUS had defended Asia against the extortions of the publicans, according to the strict justice of which he made profession, and to the particular duty of his office. The Equestrin order were upon this account his enemies, and the Marian faction was so of course, on account of his probity, as well as out of hatred to METELLUS. The most innocent man of the city was accused of corruption. The best man was prosecuted by the worst by APICIUS; a name dedicated to infamy†. Those who had stirred up the false accusation sat as judges, and pronounced the unjust sentence against him. He hardly deigned to defend his cause, but retired into the East, where that roman virtue, which Rome could not bear, was received with honor§. Shall RUTILIUS now be deemed

\* *Lib. xvii. chap. 2.*

† *There was another APICIUS, in the reign of TIBERIUS, famous for his gluttony, and a third in the time of TRAJAN.*

§ *SEN. L. De prov. cap. 3.*

unhappy,



unhappy, when they who condemned him are, for that action, delivered down as criminals to all future generations? when he quitted his country with greater ease than he would suffer his exile to finish? when he alone durst refuse the dictator SYLLA, and being recalled home, not only declined to go, but fled farther off?

WHAT do you propose, it may be said, by these examples, multitudes of which are to be collected from the memorials of former ages? I propose to shew that as Change of Place, simply considered, can render no man unhappy, so the other evils which are objected to exile, either cannot happen to wise and virtuous men; or, if they do happen to them, cannot render them miserable. Stones are hard, and cakes of ice are cold: and all who feel them, feel them alike\*. But the good or the bad events, which fortune brings upon us, are felt according to what qualities we, not they, have. They are in themselves indifferent and common accidents, and they acquire strength by nothing but our vice or our weakness. Fortune can dispense neither felicity nor infelicity unless we co-operate with her. Few men, who are unhappy under the loss of an estate, would be happy in the possession of it: and those, who deserve to enjoy the advantages which exile takes away, will not be unhappy when they are deprived of them.

It grieves me to make an exception to this rule; but TULLY was one so remarkably, that the example can be neither concealed, nor passed over. This great man, who had been the saviour of his country, who had feared, in the support of that cause, neither the insults of a desperate party, nor the daggers of assassins, when he came to suffer for the same cause, sunk under the weight. He dishonored that banishment which indulgent providence meant to be the means of rendering his glory complete. Uncertain where he should go, or what he should do, fearful as a woman, and froward as a child, he lamented the loss of his rank, of his riches, and of his splendid popularity. His eloquence served only to paint his ignominy in stronger colors. He wept over the ruins of his fine house which CLONIUS had demolished: and his separation from Terentia, whom he repudiated not long afterwards, was perhaps an affliction to him at this time. Every thing becomes intolerable to the man

\* PLUT. *On exile.*

who is once subdued by grief\*. He regrets what he took no pleasure in enjoying, and overloaded already, he shrinks at the weight of a feather. CICERO's behaviour, in short, was such that his friends, as well as his enemies, believed him to have lost his senses †. CÆSAR beheld, with a secret satisfaction, the man, who had refused to be his lieutenant, weeping under the rod of CLODIUS. POMPEY hoped to find some excuse for his own ingratitude in the contempt which the friend, whom he had abandoned, exposed himself to. Nay ATTICUS judged him too meanly attached to his former fortune, and reproached him for it. ATTICUS, whose great talents were usury and trimming, who placed his principal merit in being rich, and who would have been noted with infamy at Athens, for keeping well with all sides, and venturing on none §: even ATTICUS blushed for TULLY, and the most plausible man alive assumed the stile of CATO.

I HAVE dwelt the longer on this instance, because, whilst it takes nothing from the truth which has been established, it teaches us another of great importance. Wise men are certainly superior to all the evils of exile. But in a strict sense he, who has left any one passion in his soul unsubdued, will not deserve that appellation. It is not enough that we have studied all the duties of public and private life, that we are perfectly acquainted with them, and that we live up to them in the eye of the world. A passion that lies dormant in the heart, and has escaped our scrutiny, or which we have observed and indulged as venial, or which we have perhaps encouraged, as a principle to excite and to aid our virtue, may one time or other destroy our tranquillity, and disgrace our whole character. When virtue has steeled the mind on every side, we are invulnerable on every side: but ACHILLES was wounded in the heel. The least part, overlooked and neglected, may expose us to receive a mortal blow. Reason cannot obtain the absolute dominion of our souls by one victory. Vice has many reserves, which must be beaten; many strong holds, which must be forced; and we may be found of proof in many trials, without being so in all. We may resist the fiercest, and yield to the weakest attacks of fortune. We may

\* *Mitto cætera intolerabilia. Etenim fletu impediatur.* L. iii. *Ad Attic. ep. 10.*

† *Tam sæpe, et tam vehementer objurgas, et animo infirmo esse dicis.* Ib.

§ PLUT. *Vit. Solon.*

have got the better of avarice, the most epidemical disease of the mind, and yet be slaves to ambition \* We may have purged our souls of the fear of death, and yet some other fear may venture to lurk behind. This was the case of CICCERO. Vanity was his cardinal vice.† It had, I question not, warmed his zeal, quickened his industry, animated the love of his country, and supported his constancy against CATILINE: but it gave to CLODIUS an intire victory over him. He was not afraid to die, and part with estate, rank, honour, and every thing which he lamented the loss of; but he was afraid to live deprived of them. “Ut vivus haec amitterem.”§ He would probably have met death on this occasion with the same firmness with which he said to POPILIUS LAENAS, his client and his murderer, “approach, veteran, and, if at least thou canst do this well, cut off my head.” But he could not bear to see himself, and to be seen by others, stripped of those trappings which he was accustomed to wear. This made him break out into so many shameful expressions. “Possum oblivisci qui fuerim? non sentire qui sim? quo caream honore? quâ gloriâ?” And speaking of his Brother — “Vitavi ne viderem; ne aut illius luctum squaloremque aspicerim, aut me quem ille florentissimum reliquerat perditum illi afflictumque offerrem.” He had thought of death, and prepared his mind for it. There were occasions too where his vanity might be flattered by it. But the same vanity hindered him in his prosperous estate from supposing such a reverse as afterwards happened to him. When it came, it found him unprepared, it surprized him,

\* SENECA says the contrary of all this, according to the Stoical system, which however he departs from on many occasions. “Si contra unam quam libet partem fortunae satis tibi roboris est, idem adversus omnes erit.—Si avaritia dimisit, vehementissima generis humani pestis, moram tibi ambitio non faciet. Si ultimum diem, &c. De Con. ad Hel.

Non singula vitia ratio, sed pariter omnia prostermit. In universum semel vincitur. Ibid.

Nec audacem quidem timoris absolvimus: ne prodigum quidem avaritiâ liberamus. De Benef. l. 4. c. 27.

Qui autem habet vitium unum, habet omnia. Ib. l. 5. c. 15.

† In animo autem gloriae cupido, qualis fuit Ciceronis, plurimum potest. Vel. Pat. l. 1.

§ Ep. ad Attic. l. 3. ep. 3, 7, 10. et passim. L. 3. Ep. 10. ad Attic.



it stun'd him; for he was still fond of the pomp and hurry of Rome, "fumum, et opes, strepitumque Romae," and unweaned from all those things which habit renders necessary, and which nature has left indifferent.

We have enumerated them above, and it is time to descend into a more particular examination of them. Change of place then may be borne by every man. It is the delight of many. But who can bear the evils which accompany exile? you who ask the question can bear them. Every one who considers them as they are in themselves, instead of looking at them thro the false optic which prejudice holds before our eyes. For what? you have lost your estate: reduce your desires, and you will perceive yourself to be as rich as ever, with this considerable advantage to boot, that your cares will be diminished.\* Our natural and real wants are confined to narrow bounds, whilst those which fancy and custom create are confined to none. Truth lies within a little and certain compass but error is immense. If we suffer our desires therefore to wander beyond these bounds, they wander eternally. "Nescio quid curtae semper abest rei." We become necessitous in the midst of plenty, and our poverty increases with our riches. Reduce your desires, be able to say with the apostle of Greece, to whom ERASMUS was ready to address his prayers, "quam multis ipse non egeo!" banish out of your exile all imaginary, and you will suffer no real wants. The little stream which is left will suffice to quench the thirst of nature, and that which cannot be quenched by it, is not your thirst, but your distemper; a distemper formed by the vicious habits of your mind, and not the effect of exile. How great a part of mankind bear poverty with cheerfulness, because they have been bred in it, and are accustomed to it? † Shall we not be able to acquire, by reason and by reflection, what the meanest artisan possesses by habit? Shall those who have so many advantages over him be slaves to wants and necessities of which he is igno-

\* *Naturalia desideria finita sunt: ex falsâ opinione nascentia ubi desinant non habent, nullus enim terminus falsa est.* SEN. Ep. 16.

*Excerpt. ex Lib. Sen. falsely so called.*

*Si ad naturam vires, nunquam eris pauper; si ad opinionem, nunquam dives. Exiguum natura desiderat, opinio immensum.* SEN. Ep. 16.

† SEN. *De con. ad Hel.*

rant?

rant? The rich whose wanton appetites neither the produce of one country, nor of one part of the world can satisfy, for whom the whole habitable globe is ransacked, for whom the caravans of the east are continually in march, and the remotest seas are covered with ships; these pampered creatures, sated with superfluity, are often glad to inhabit an humble cot, and to make an homely meal. They run for refuge into the arms of frugality. Madmen that they are to live always in fear of what they sometimes wish for, and to fly from that life which they find it luxury to imitate! Let us cast our eyes backwards on those great men who lived in the ages of virtue, of simplicity, of frugality, and let us blush to think that we enjoy in banishment more than they were masters of in the midst of their glory, in the utmost affluence of their fortune. Let us imagine that we behold a great dictator giving audience to the Samnite ambassadors, and preparing on the hearth his mean repast with the same hand which had so often subdued the enemies of the commonwealth, and borne the triumphal laurel to the capitol. Let us remember that PLATO had but \* three servants, and that ZENO had none. † SOCRATES, the reformer of his country, was maintained, as MENENIUS AGRIPPA, the arbiter of his country was buried, by contribution. § While ATTILIUS REGULUS beat the Carthaginians in Afric, the flight of his ploughman reduced his family to distress at home, and the tillage of his little farm became the public

\* PLATO's will, in Diog. Laer. mentions four servants, besides Diana, to whom he gave her freedom.

APULEIUS makes his estate consist in a little garden near the academy, two servants, a patten for sacrifices, and as much gold as would serve to make ear-rings for a child.

† ZENO was owner of a thousand talents when he came from Cyprus into Greece, and he used to lend his money out upon ships at an high interest. He kept, in short, a kind of insurance-office. He lost this estate perhaps when he said, "*rectè sanè agit fortuna, quæ nos ad philosophiam impellit.*" Afterwards he received many and great presents from Antigonus. So that his great frugality and simplicity of life, was the effect of his choice, and not of necessity. Vid. Dio. Laer.

§ Diog. Laer, vit. Soc. quotes Aristoxenus for affirming that Socrates used to keep a box, and lived upon the money which was put into it: "*Positâ igitur arculâ, collegisse pecuniam quæ daretur; consumptâ autem eâ, rursus posuisse.*"

care. *Scipio* died without leaving enough to marry his daughters, and their portions were payed out of the treasury of the state; for sure it was just that the people of Rome should once pay tribute to him, who had established a perpetual tribute on Carthage. After such examples shall we be afraid of poverty? shall we disdain to be adopted into a family which has so many illustrious ancestors? shall we complain of banishment for taking from us what the greatest philosophers, and the greatest heroes of antiquity never enjoyed?

You will find fault perhaps, and attribute to artifice, that I consider singly misfortunes which come altogether on the banished man, and overbear him with their united weight. You could support change of place if it was not accompanied with poverty, or poverty if it was not accompanied with the separation from your family and your friends, with the loss of your rank, consideration, and power, with contempt and ignominy. Whoever he be who reasons in this manner, let him take the following answer: The least of these circumstances is singly sufficient to render the man miserable who is not prepared for it, who has not divested himself of that passion upon which it is directed to work. But he who has got the mastery of all his passions, who has foreseen all these accidents, and prepared his mind to endure them all, will be superior to all of them, and to all of them at once as well as singly. He will not bear the loss of his rank, because he can bear the loss of his estate: but he will bear both, because he is prepared for both; because he is free from pride as much as he is from avarice.

You are separated from your family and your friends. Take the list of them, and look it well over. How few of your family will you find who deserve the name of friends? and how few among these who are really such? Erase the names of such as ought not to stand on the roll, and the voluminous catalogue will soon dwindle into a narrow compass. Regret, if you please, your separation from this small remnant. Far be it from me, whilst I declaim against a shameful and vicious weakness of mind, to proscribe the sentiments of a virtuous friendship. Regret your separation from your friends; but regret it like a man who deserves to be theirs. This is strength, not weakness of mind; it is virtue, not vice.

BUT the least uneasiness under the loss of the rank which we held is ignominious. There is no valuable rank among men, but that which real merit assigns. The princes of the earth



earth may give names, and institute ceremonies, and exact the observation of them; their imbecillity and their wickedness may prompt them to cloathe fools and knaves with robes of honour, and emblems of wisdom and virtue: but no man will be in truth superior to another, without superior merit; and that rank can no more be taken from us, than the merit which establishes it. The supreme authority gives a fictitious and arbitrary value to coin, which is therefore not current alike in all times and in all places; but the real value remains invariable, and the provident man, who gets rid as fast as he can of the drossy piece, hoards up the good silver. Thus merit will not procure the same consideration universally. But what then? the title to this consideration is the same, and will be found alike in every circumstance by those who are wise and virtuous themselves. If it is not owned by such as are otherwise, nothing is however taken from us; we have no reason to complain. They considered us for a rank which we had; for our denomination, not for our intrinsic value. We have that rank, that denomination no longer, and they consider us no longer: they admired in us what we admired not in ourselves. If they learn to neglect us, let us learn to pity them. Their assiduity was importunate: let us not complain of the ease which this change procures us; let us rather apprehend the return of that rank and that power, which, like a sunny day, would bring back these little insects, and make them swarm once more about us. I know how apt we are, under specious pretences, to disguise our weakneses and our vices, and how often we succeed not only in deceiving the world, but even in deceiving ourselves. An inclination to do good is inseparable from a virtuous mind, and therefore the man, who cannot bear with patience the loss of that rank and power which he enjoyed, may be willing to attribute his regrets to the impossibility which he supposes himself reduced to of satisfying this inclination. But let such an one know, that a wise man contents himself with doing as much good as his situation allows him to do; that there is no situation wherein we may not do a great deal: and that when we are deprived of greater power to do more good we escape at the same time the temptation of doing some evil.

THE inconveniencies, which we have mentioned, carry nothing along with them difficult to be borne by a wise and virtuous man; and those which remain to be mentioned,

\* Sen. De con. ad Hel.

contempt and ignominy, can never fall to his lot. It is impossible that he who reverences himself should be despised by others : and how can ignominy affect the man who collects all his strength within himself, who appeals from the judgment of the multitude to another tribunal, and lives independent of mankind and of the accidents of life? CATO lost the election of prætor, and that of consul; but is any one blind enough to truth to imagine that these repulses reflected any disgrace on him? The dignity of those two magistracies would have been increased by his wearing them. They suffered, not CATO.

You have fulfilled all the duties of a good citizen, you have been true to your trust, constant in your engagements, and have pursued the interest of your country without regard to the enemies you created, and the dangers you run. You severed her interest as much as lay in your power from those of her factions and from those of her neighbours and allies too, when they became different. She reaps the benefit of these services, and you suffer for them. You are banished and pursued with ignominy, and those whom you hindered from triumphing at her expence revenge themselves at yours. The persons, in opposition to whom you served, or even saved the public, conspire and accomplish your private ruin. These are your accusers, and the giddy ungrateful crowd your judges. Your name is hung up in the tables of proscription, and art joined to malice endeavours to make your best actions pass for crimes, and to stain your character. For this purpose the sacred voice of the senate is made to pronounce a lye, and those records, which ought to be the eternal monuments of truth, become the vouchers of imposture and calumny. Such circumstances as these you think intolerable, and you would prefer death to so ignominious an exile. Deceive not yourself. The ignominy remains with them who persecute unjustly, not with him who suffers unjust persecution. "Recalcitrat undique tutus." Suppose that in the act which banishes you, it was declared that you have some contagious distemper, that you are crooked, or otherwise deformed. This would render the legislators ridiculous.\* The other renders them infamous. But neither one nor the other can affect the man who, in an healthful well proportioned body enjoys a conscience void of all the offences

\* *The dialogue between Cicero and Philiscus, Dion. Cass. l. 38.*

ascribed to him. Instead of such an exile, would you compound, that you might live at home in ease and plenty, to be the instrument of blending these contrary interests once more together, and of giving but the third place to that of your country? Would you prostitute her power to the ambition of others, under the pretence of securing her from imaginary dangers, and drain her riches into the pockets of the meanest and vilest of her citizens, under the pretence of paying her debts? If you could submit to so infamous a composition, you are not the man to whom I address my discourse, or with whom I will have any commerce: and if you have virtue enough to disdain it, why should you repine at the other alternative? Banishment from such a country, and with such circumstances is like being delivered from prison. DIOGENES was driven out of the kingdom of Pontus for counterfeiting the coin, and STRATONICUS thought that forgery might be committed in order to get banished from Scirphos. But you have obtained your liberty by doing your duty.

BANISHMENT, with all its train of evils, is so far from being the cause of contempt, that he who bears up with an undaunted spirit against them, while so many are dejected by them, erects on his very misfortunes a trophy to his honor: for such is the frame and temper of our minds, that nothing strikes us with greater admiration than a man intrepid in the midst of misfortunes. Of all ignominies an ignominious death must be allowed to be the greatest, and yet where is the blasphemer who will presume to defame the death of SOCRATES \*? This saint entered the prison with the same countenance with which he reduced thirty tyrants, and he took off ignominy from the place; for how could it be deemed a prison when SOCRATES was there? ARISTIDES was led to execution in the same city; all those who met the sad procession, cast their eyes to the ground, and with throbbing hearts bewailed, not the innocent man, but Justice herself, who was in him condemned. Yet there was a wretch found, for monsters are sometimes produced in contradiction to the ordinary rules of nature, who spit in his face as he passed along. ARISTIDES wiped his cheek, smiled, turned to the magistrate, and said, "Admonish this man not to be so nasty for the future."

IGNOMINY then can take no hold on virtue †; for virtue is in every condition the same, and challenges the same re-

\* Sen. *De con. ad Hel.*

† Sen. *De con. ad Hel.*

*One of the commandments at Marath*  
42190



spect. We applaud the world when she prospers; and when she falls into adversity we applaud her. Like the temples of the Gods, she is venerable even in her ruins. After this must it not appear a degree of madness to defer one moment acquiring the only arms capable of defending us against attacks, which at every moment we are exposed to? Our being miserable, or not miserable, when we fall into misfortunes, depends on the manner in which we have enjoyed prosperity. If we have applied ourselves betimes to the study of wisdom, and to the practice of virtue, these evils become indifferent; but if we have neglected to do so, they become necessary. In one case they are evils, in the other they are remedies for greater evils than themselves. ZENO\* rejoiced that a ship-wreck had thrown him on the Athenian coast: and he owed to the loss of his fortune the acquisition which he made of virtue, of wisdom, of immortality. There are good and bad airs for the mind as well as for the body. Prosperity often irritates our chronical distempers, and leaves no hopes of finding any specific but in adversity. In such cases banishment is like change of air, and the evils we suffer are like rough medicines applied to inveterate diseases. What † ANACHARSIS said of the vine, may aptly enough be said of prosperity. She bears the three grapes of drunkenness, of pleasure and of sorrow: and happy it is if the last can cure the mischief which the former work. When afflictions fail to have their due effect, the case is desperate. They are the last remedy which indulgent Providence uses: and if they fail, we must languish and die in misery and contempt. Vain men! how seldom do we know what to wish or to pray for? When we pray against misfortunes, and when we fear them most, we want them most. It was for this reason that PYTHAGORAS forbid his disciples to ask any thing in particular of God. The shortest and the best prayer which we can address to him, who knows our wants, and our ignorance in asking, is this: "Thy will be done."

TULLY says, in some part of his works, that as happiness is the object of all philosophy, so the disputes among philosophers arise from their different notions of the sovereign good. Reconcile them in that point, you reconcile them in the rest. The school of ZENO placed this sovereign good in naked virtue, and wound the principle up to an extreme beyond the pitch of nature and truth. A spirit of opposition

\* Dio. Laer.

† Sen.

*This is Zeno of Cyprus the founder of the  
Stoics. He must not be confounded with  
Zeno of Elea*

to another doctrine, which grew into great vogue while ZENO flourished, might occasion this excess. EPICURUS placed the sovereign good in pleasure. His terms were wilfully, or accidentally mistaken. His scholars might help to pervert his doctrine, but rivalry enflamed the dispute; for in truth there is not so much difference between stoicism reduced to reasonable intelligible terms, and genuine orthodox epicurism, as is imagined. The *faelicitis animi immota tranquillitas*, and the *voluptas* of the latter are near enough a-kin: and I much doubt whether the firmest hero of the Portic would have borne a fit of the stone, on the principles of ZENO, with greater magnanimity and patience than EPICURUS did, on those of his own philosophy. However\*, ARISTOTLE took a middle way, or explained himself better, and placed happiness in the joint advantages of the mind, of the body, and of fortune. They are reasonably joined; but certain it is, that they must not be placed on an equal foot. We can much better bear the privation of the last than of the others; and poverty itself, which mankind is so afraid of, “*per mare pauperiem fugiens, per saxa, per ignes,*” is surely preferable to madness or the stone, tho † CHRYSIPPUS thought it better to live mad, than not to live! If banishment therefore, by taking from us the advantages of fortune, can not take from us the more valuable advantages of the mind and the body, when we have them; and if the same accident is able to restore them to us, when we have lost them, banishment is a very slight misfortune to those who are already under the dominion of reason, and a very great blessing to those who are still plunged in vices which ruin the health both of body and mind. It is to be wished for, in favour of such as these, and to be feared by none. If we are in this case, let us second the designs of Providence in our favour, and make some amends for neglecting former opportunities by not letting slip the last. “*Si nolis sanus, curres hydropicus.*” We may shorten the evils which we might have prevented, and as we get the better of our disorderly passions, and vicious habits, we shall feel our anxiety diminish in proportion.

\* Compare the representations made so frequently of the doctrine of voluptu taught by EPICURUS, with the account which he himself gives in his letter to MENOECIUS, of the sense wherein he understood this word. *Vid. Diog. Laer.*

† In his third book of nature, cited by PLUTARCH, in the treatise on the contradictions of the Stoics.

All the approaches to virtue are comfortable. With how much joy will the man, who improves his misfortunes in this manner, discover that those evils, which he attributed to his exile, sprung from his vanity and folly, and vanish with them? He will see that, in his former temper of mind, he resembled the effeminate prince who could drink no \* water but that of the river Choaspes; or the simple queen, in one of the tragedies of EURIPIDES, who complained bitterly, that she had not lighted the nuptial torch, and that the river Ismenus had not furnished the water at her son's wedding. Seeing his former state in this ridiculous light, he will labour on with pleasure towards another as contrary as possible to it; and when he arrives there, he will be convinced by the strongest of all proofs, his own experience, that he was unfortunate because he was vicious, not because he was banished.

If I was not afraid of being thought to refine too much, I would venture to put some advantages, of fortune, which are due to exile, into the scale against those which we lose by exile. One there is which has been neglected even by great and wise men. DEMETRIUS PHALEREUS, after his expulsion from Athens, became first minister to the king of Egypt; and THEMISTOCLES found such a reception at the court of Persia, that he used to say his fortune had been lost if he had not been ruined. But DEMETRIUS exposed himself by his favour under the first PTOLEMY to a new disgrace under the second: and THEMISTOCLES, who had been the captain of a free people, became the vassal of the prince he had conquered. How much better is it to take hold of the proper advantage of exile, and to live for ourselves, when we are under no obligation of living for others? SIMILIS, a captain of great reputation under TRAJAN and ADRIAN, having obtained leave to retire, passed seven years in his retreat, and then dying, ordered this inscription to be put on his tomb: that he had been many years on earth †, but that he had lived only seven. If you are wise, your leisure will be worthily employed, and your retreat will add new lustre to your character. Imitate THUCYDIDES in Thracia, or XENOPHON in his little farm at Scillus. In such a retreat you may sit down, like one of the inhabitants of Elis, who judged of the Olympic games, without taking any part in

\* Plut. on banishment.

† Xiphill.

*Miltiades Aristides & Themistocles them.  
commanded at Marathon. The latter  
commanded at Salamis in 480 B.C.*



them. Far from the hurry of the world, and almost an unconcerned spectator of what passes in it, having payed in a public life what you owed to the present age, pay in a private life what you owe to posterity. Write, as you live, without passion; and build your reputation, as you build your happiness, on the foundations of truth. If you want the talents, the inclination, or the necessary materials for such a work, fall not however into sloth. Endeavour to copy after the example of *SCIPIO* at *Linternum*. Be able to say to yourself,

“*Innocuas amo delicias doctamque quietem.*”

Rural amusements, and philosophical meditations, will make your hours glide smoothly on; and if the indulgence of Heaven has given you a friend like *LELIUS*, nothing is wanting to make you completely happy.

These are some of those reflexions which may serve to fortify the mind under banishment, and under the other misfortunes of life, which it is every man's interest to prepare for, because they are common to all men\*: I say they are common to all men; because even they who escape them are equally exposed to them. The darts of adverse fortune are always levelled at our heads. Some reach us, some graze against us, and fly to wound our neighbours. Let us therefore impose an equal temper on our minds, and pay without murmuring the tribute which we owe to humanity. The winter brings cold, and we must freeze. The summer returns with heat, and we must melt. The inclemency of the air disorders our health, and we must be sick. Here we are exposed to wild beasts, and there to men more savage than the beasts: and if we escape the inconveniencies and dangers of the air and the earth, there are perils by water and perils by fire. This established course of things it is not in our power to change; but it is in our power to assume such a greatness of mind as becomes wise and virtuous men; as may enable us to encounter the accidents of life with fortitude, and to conform ourselves to the order of nature, who governs her great kingdom, the world, by continual mutations. Let us submit to this order, let us be persuaded that whatever does happen ought to happen, and never be so foolish as to expostulate with nature. The best resolution we can take is to suffer what we cannot alter, and to pursue, without repining, the

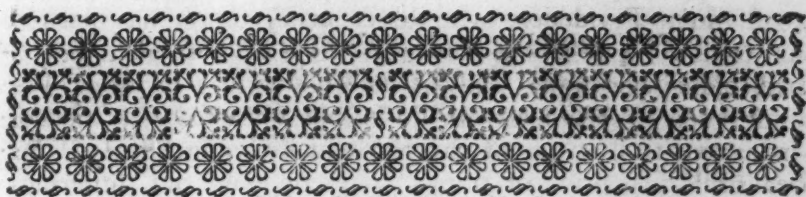
\* *Sen. Ep.* 107.

road which Providence, who directs every thing, has marked out to us: for it is not enough to follow; and he is but a bad soldier who fights, and marches on with reluctance. We must receive the orders with spirit and cheerfulness, and not endeavour to slink out of the post which is assigned us in this beautiful disposition of things, whereof even our sufferings make a necessary part. Let us address ourselves to God, who governs all, as CLEANTHES did in those admirable verses, which are going to lose part of their grace and energy in my translation of them.

Parent of nature! Master of the world!  
Where'er thy Providence directs, behold  
My steps with cheerful resignation turn.  
Fate leads the willing, drags the backward on.  
Why should I grieve, when grieving I must bear?  
Or take with guilt, what guiltless I might share?

Thus let us speak, and thus let us act. Resignation to the will of God is true magnanimity. But the sure mark of a pusillanimous and base spirit, is to struggle against, to censure the order of Providence, and instead of mending our own conduct, to set up for correcting that of our Maker.





# THE CONTENTS.

## LETTER I.

**O**F the study of history.

Vol. i. p. 7.

## LETTER II.

Concerning the true use and advantages of it.

Vol. i. p. 10.

## LETTER III.

1. An objection against the utility of history removed.
2. The false and true aims of those who study it.
3. Of the history of the first ages, with reflections on the state of ancient history, prophane and sacred.

Vol. i. p. 27.

## LETTER IV.

1. That there is in history sufficient authenticity to render it useful, notwithstanding all objections to the contrary.
2. Of the method and due restrictions to be observed in the study of it.

Vol. i. p. 54.

## LETTER V.

1. The great use of history, properly so called, as distinguished from the writings of mere annalists and antiquaries.
2. Greek and Roman historians.
3. Some idea of a complete history.
4. Further cautions to be observed in this study, and the regulation



## CONTENTS.

*lation of it, according to the different professions, and situations of men; above all, the use to be made of it (1) by divines, and (2) by those who are called to the service of their country.*

Vol. i. p. 66.

### LETTER VI.

*From what period modern history is peculiarly useful to the service of our country, viz. From the end of the fifteenth century to the present. The division of this into three particular periods: In order to a sketch of the history and state of Europe from that time.*

Vol. i. p. 86.

### LETTER VII.

*A sketch of the state and history of Europe from the Pyrenean treaty in one thousand six hundred and fifty-nine, to the year one thousand six hundred and eighty-eight.*

Vol. i. p. 104.

### LETTER VIII.

*The same subject continued from the year one thousand six hundred eighty-eight.*

Vol. ii. p. 3.

### LETTER I.

*A plan for a general history of Europe.*

Vol. ii. p. 68.

### LETTER II.

*Of the true use of retirement and study.*

Vol. ii. p. 72.

### LETTER III.

*Reflections upon Exile.*

Vol. ii. p. 86.



THE END.

